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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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VARYING VIEWS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

A modern view in America The First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, in its report *Vitalizing Secondary Education* (Bulletin 1951, No. 3, of the United States Office of Education), stated that it "subscribed to educational concepts which were widely understood and accepted by educational leaders in the United States. The Commission admitted that practice had lagged considerably behind this understanding and acceptance of theory, but it was optimistic about the prospects for improving practice."

The gap that exists between the position of the *leaders* and that of teachers and administrators on whom the leaders must rely to put theory into practice is, of course, inevitable because of the nature of leadership. The Commission sought to narrow this

gap, and the report gives evidence that considerable progress has been made. It is not always clear just how many of the activities described may be attributed directly to the work of the Commission. Probably some of them would have taken place anyway. Nevertheless, *Vitalizing Secondary Education* provides a stimulating and highly encouraging overview of the current situation at the cutting edge of educational progress.

The educational philosophy of the Commission is not confined to a single compact pronouncement; it permeates the report. A few quotations should suffice to indicate some fundamental aspects of the point of view.

Secondary education—available to all, enrolling all, and meaningful to all—has long been a part of America's hopes and aspirations for its youth. This part of the "American dream," though it has not been implemented, has been kept alive by our acceptance of the democratic concept of equal educational opportunity for all.

Is life adjustment education for the so-called 60 per cent and no one else, or is it for all? In other words, is life adjustment education good only for students who are not going to college or into the skilled trades? Many wished the Commission to aim directly at the neglected majority of youth of high-school age. The advocates of this point of view insisted that life adjustment education would lose its meaning unless it concentrated upon the peculiar needs of the so-called 60 per cent. Others insisted that many vocational students, college students, and even college graduates need education for life adjustment just as much as do those who drop out of school or enter unskilled occupations. They held that the education which American citizens need to maintain their political institutions and to deal with economic problems should not be limited to any particular group. It was pointed out also that when a pupil enters high school at thirteen or fourteen years of age, he does not come labeled as a member of a group. There is no way of foretelling whether he is going to college, into a skilled occupation, or into semiskilled work. He must be dealt with as an individual and not as a member of a group.

Basic to this [planning for the individual] is a detailed and cumulative study of each pupil, the data from which will enable teacher and pupil co-operatively to plan appropriate learning experiences. Basic also is a knowledge of society which helps the pupil see his opportunities and his problems.

A view in opposition Unfortunately, a great many high-school teachers and administrators

in this country have not accepted the philosophy which is usually said to underlie and guide American secondary education. When these teachers feel free to express themselves, they reveal their attitudes in various ways.

They may, for example, express doubt whether some of their students "really belong in high school." These teachers cling to their faith in the value of learning certain subjects even when the connection between the subject and the life of the student is remote. They tend to reject the view that failure in school subjects indicates lack of adjustment between curriculum and student, and they defend a high rate of failure on the ground that it serves to eliminate incompetents. They deplore the "lowering of standards," which to them seems to be the result of trying to educate all youth.

A similar position is often taken by college personnel. According to the *Chicago Sun-Times* of December 6, 1951, the president of the University of Virginia, Colgate W. Darden, Jr., recently said that "in our enthusiasm for mass education in America we have overdone it," that "by keeping inferior students in high school, we have watered down the education job we could do for good students." Darden is also reported to have said that the cost of the mass education is "fearful" and that, by abandoning compulsory public school education beyond elementary school, the quality of education could be "improved immeasurably."

A century-old view These statements have a familiar sound, but they come too late to exert much influence on secondary education in America. For arguments on the other side we can turn to an article in

the *Pennsylvania School Journal* for October, 1951, under the title "Communism in High Schools." The fact that the article was first printed in the same magazine nearly one hundred years earlier—in September, 1852—only adds to its interest and usefulness. Of course, the author of the article was not discussing "communism" as we know it today. A few excerpts follow:

Whilst traveling lately through some portion of this, and one of the neighboring States, we were frequently inquired of respecting the operation of the High School System, now adopted in a number of our cities and large towns. In many minds we found a strong prejudice existing against it, in consequence of the communistic or socialistic element supposed to be involved in it. . . .

The foundation of our government is based in virtue. Ignorance and virtue are antagonistic. Therefore the prevalence of ignorance and the continuance of our national prosperity are incompatible. Hence the dissemination of knowledge, the antidote of ignorance, is conceded to be one of the duties of government, inherent in its right of self-preservation.—But ignorance and knowledge being merely relative terms the question presents itself: To what extent should government confer the blessings of education on its citizens, in order wholly to attain the object of its establishment, "the highest happiness of the governed?"

This is the *punctum saliens* from which all argument on this subject springs. One class of men aver, that in order to attain this happy end it is only necessary to give instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. This, say they, enables them to perform all the duties of life, both to themselves and the community, with honor. . . . Will this qualify him for life and render him sufficiently happy: or, if a little knowledge

has confessedly done so much for him, will not more elevate him still higher?

By many tho' this query is answered affirmatively, yet it is said that any further advancement in education, by common schools at the public expense, would become tinged with the stain of socialism.—The exact line at which this element is introduced has never been demarcated; and in fact it seems to be advancing with the age. The objection, then, is based upon the violation of the right of property, in consequence of poor children being permitted to draw near and also participate in the classic and scientific feasts hitherto reserved for the favored few, at the expense of the rich.

It is alleged that the wealthy receive no adequate return for the money extorted from them in the form of school tax, and that society has no right to levy tax on one class to confer bounties on another. This reasoning is specious.

The writer continued with arguments for education as a means of reducing pauperism and crime and of promoting the full development of resources. He sought to answer those who argued that "an education at an Academy or College, precludes the possibility of a return to manual labor." In this connection he reports an early "follow-up" study:

In respect to High Schools, we find by examining some of the annual reports of the Philadelphia High School, that out of the whole number that left the school in 1851,—206—only 13 became professional characters, the rest returning, in many cases, to their fathers' trade, or such other as choice or emolument might dictate. Thus we see that this position, though seemingly founded on experience, is false.

One measure of the distance we have come over the past hundred years is given by the fact that provi-

sion of educational opportunity in high schools at public expense is now so commonly accepted. Now and then someone in an influential position, like President Darden, talks against it, and there is always some grumbling over tax bills. However, even those who today attack certain individuals as "communistic," or certain government projects as "socialistic," are not likely to try to undermine our system of secondary education by applying these terms to it. Efforts to insure that communistic doctrine is not advocated in the schools are, of course, being made. These efforts are much less threatening to the high school as an institution than was the opposition a century ago based on the argument that education at public expense is socialistic.

It is interesting to speculate on how much the work of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education has been favored by the choice of its name, part of which has become a slogan. It is easy to be *for*, and not easy to be openly *against*, "life-adjustment" education. Essentially the same program under the name "progressive" education would undoubtedly have been subject to attack from several quarters. The widespread tendency to accept a slogan like "education for life adjustment" at the verbal level may cause us to overlook the group whose personal philosophy is contradictory to it and who tend to remain "unreconstructed rebels" against the trend. In spite of them, however, the public high school has established itself as a

force in American life during the past century.

Contrasting views in Britain

It is interesting to compare our situation with that in Britain. Not long ago the Labor party issued a report on *A Policy for Secondary Education*. If the recommendations of this report are followed, the structural organization of secondary education for British youth would become more similar to ours than it now is. The following quotations from the "Notes and Comments" section of the *Political Quarterly* (a British journal) for October-December, 1951, state the issues as seen from an opposition point of view:

The report attacks the present system of dividing children into three main categories destined respectively for grammar schools, secondary technical schools, and secondary modern schools, on two grounds. First, that the age of eleven at which this process takes place is too young to make a final decision affecting a child's educational prospects. Second, that the separation of schools into these types was based originally on class distinctions, and "the three types of school are bound to inherit the old traditions of class segregation." In consequence, the pamphlet contends, children who do not succeed in entering the grammar school draw resentful conclusions about their inferiority, while on the other hand the grammar school boy assumes that he is superior to the others. These objections will persist even in a tripartite system where selection is based on special qualifications and not on wealth.

The pamphlet does not believe that mistakes of classification can be rectified by subsequent transfer from one type of school to another, because in practice grammar

schools are reluctant to accept pupils from secondary modern or technical high schools, while parents object strenuously to their children being sent from a grammar school to one of these other types of school.

In consequence, the report declares, all three types of school must be swept away and be replaced by comprehensive schools to which all children will go for their secondary education. No attempt is made to examine the scholastic aspects of the question, or to consider the problems involved in attempting to educate a mass of children of widely differing abilities, aptitudes, and tastes, who are destined for widely different careers. The matter is argued and decided almost entirely on social grounds, in terms of a doctrinaire egalitarianism quite unrelated to genuine equality of educational opportunity.

The comprehensive school which the report envisages will cater for all children by means of "a central core of subjects common to all"; from this central core there will develop classes in specialized subjects. The first two years of the new system will be "diagnostic years" in which the curriculum will be a mere continuation of the primary school with the possible addition of a foreign language. When the diagnosis has at last been made—presumably with careful safeguards to prevent any pupil from being earmarked as cleverer than his fellows—pupils will be allocated among various curriculum patterns according to their interests and abilities, or catered for by other ill-defined and obscure methods.

When these proposals for a further democratization of British secondary education are compared with the program for this country outlined in *Vitalizing Secondary Education*, the similarities in policy are notable. Although the majority of public high schools in America are of the "comprehensive" type, it must be admitted

that this alone is not sufficient to insure that they achieve the real objectives of a genuinely democratic educational philosophy. Social and intellectual class distinctions still exist in many schools. Like the Labor party in Britain, educational leaders here are trying to diminish these social and economic differences, and it is often charged that, in so doing, the schools are failing to develop our intellectual resources to the fullest possible extent. The British writer in the *Political Quarterly* recognizes this danger and uses it as a basis for a defense of the British college-preparatory type of school. His argument goes as follows:

The first question of principle which should be decided, before a policy for secondary education can properly be adopted, is whether we intend to make the most of the community's intellectual powers. If so, we must accept the idea of an intellectual elite, an aristocracy of brains, based entirely on ability and without regard to wealth, social standing, or other forms of privilege. We have, in this small island, few natural advantages. Our principal assets are coal and ourselves. Hitherto, the educational system of Britain has been grossly restricted by poverty and privilege. Yet despite a vast and continuous suppression and waste of ability through lack of educational opportunity, the British people have made massive and outstanding contributions to civilization: in science, industry, engineering, colonization, navigation, politics and public administration, literature, medicine, and many other fields.

There is general agreement that educational privilege must be abolished; but there is much less understanding of the need for developing the exceptionally gifted boy or girl to the highest possible degree. Nor is there wide appreciation of the extent to

which a society such as our own depends for its leadership in all spheres on the intellectual powers of its ablest men and women.

It is by no means certain that the ease of transfer from one stream to another, which is the strongest argument for the comprehensive school, will in practice produce the egalitarian results desired. It may merely create class divisions within schools, instead of between them. To group three schools together under one administrative head, or even to merge them entirely, does not solve the crucial problem of making a "modern" or a "technical" secondary education as good, on its own lines, as a grammar school education. Whether the secondary modern school and its technical counterpart remain separate entities, or become part of a comprehensive school, that problem remains.

In conclusion, two points should be borne in mind. One is that the high attainments of the grammar school exert a fertilizing influence over the whole realm of education, and its loss would mean a general decline of standards throughout the educational system. The other is that the conception of the secondary modern school has much to commend it, especially from the socialist standpoint. For it is here that the child of good intelligence can be educated in a way which will develop his general ability to understand the world in which we live, to enjoy a fuller life, and to appreciate cultural activities, without being forced to pursue intellectual or technical achievements beyond his capacity.

The Labor party lost the recent general election in Britain, but it will probably continue to support the policy calling for "comprehensive" schools. The assumption that the loss of the British grammar school "would mean a general decline of standards throughout the educational system" should be challenged. A brief rebuttal argument was published on November 2, 1951, in the *Times Educational*

Supplement of London. The writer, Mr. W. S. Brace, has just returned to an English grammar school after spending a year as an exchange teacher in an American high school. He defends the policy of the comprehensive school for Britain by declaring: "Far from my experience in an American high school having convinced me that the grammar school is vastly superior, I feel most strongly that one road ahead for English education lies through comprehensive schools, adapted to English needs." Moreover, Mr. Brace reveals in the following quotation how our educational policy looks to an observer from another country:

The American comprehensive school does not seek to mimic the traditional grammar school, so if it did match grammar school standards it would indeed have failed. Instead of pursuing sacrosanct standards set in ivory towers the American high school turns its face to the realities of the society in which it is set. It takes as its goal the satisfaction of the needs of its pupils. These needs are in part personal and in part related to the society in which they will soon find themselves as working members, and to which they will have the chance to contribute. A leading impression I bring back with me is the sense of purpose and virility which permeates these schools, so different from the aimless drifting of many grammar school pupils.

When American educators attempt to evaluate the secondary schools of this country, the verdict is not always so favorable as that of Mr. Brace. However, reports like *Vitalizing Secondary Education* give grounds for optimism—the schools are making progress toward goals which justify their

continued support in a democratic social order.

EVALUATION OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION PROGRAMS

THE Emil Schwarzhaupt Foundation of New York City has made a grant to the University of Chicago in the amount of \$25,300 to undertake an inquiry into education for American citizenship. The principal aims of the undertaking are as follows:

1. To furnish an authentic account of the principal national programs in education for American citizenship now in operation.
2. To furnish an adequate description of the more outstanding local programs of civic education.
3. To analyze the basic premises upon which existing programs rest, the goals toward which they are directed, and the methods through which they seek to realize their objectives.
4. To evaluate in the light of available evidence the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of these programs.
5. On the basis of such an evaluation, to develop a guide for the improvement of programs in civic education.
6. To discover the areas in which new promising experiments might be undertaken and to suggest those topics on which research and action would be appropriate.

This study will be under the guidance of a faculty committee from the Division of the Social Sciences of the University of Chicago.

EVOLUTION IN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

TWO OPPOSING TENDENCIES operate to bring about a gradual realignment of educational organizations. On the one hand, there is the tendency to form new organizations for the pro-

motion of special aims and functions. This is an example of *differentiation* within a general field. On the other hand, there is a tendency to group together existing organizations whose purposes and functions are related or similar. This tendency is in the direction of better *integration* of the organizations in the same field.

The National School Public Relations Association is an example of an organization which has a relatively specific purpose. Founded in 1935, it now has more than two thousand members. This organization recently published a handbook called *It Starts in the Classroom*, which states:

NSPRA includes many staff members who are assigned to full-time public relations responsibilities in city and county systems, state departments of education, and state and local education associations. Even more of the members are school superintendents, board members, association leaders, principals, and classroom teachers.

The handbook of sixty-four pages is filled with suggestions for improved methodology which, if put into practice, should bring results favorable from the public relations standpoint.

The NSPRA has announced that a public relations newsletter for classroom teachers will be published monthly starting in January, 1952. It will have the same title as the handbook mentioned above and will be a continuing source for the same type of public relations ideas as they are developed by teachers throughout the nation.

Information concerning subscription prices and a complimentary copy of the *Newsletter* may be obtained

from the National School Public Relations Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

As this organization seeks to promote its special aims by influencing the practices of classroom teachers, it is likely to feel the need for closer integration of its work with that of organizations primarily for teachers. Its status as a department of the National Education Association should facilitate these integrating forces.

Two excellent examples of regrouping among organizations of similar purpose have occurred within the year. Dissatisfied with two older organizations, adult educators in May, 1951, merged them into a strengthened Adult Education Association of the United States. Its officers promised more vigorous training of adult-education leaders and greater emphasis on "vital adult-education activities."

More recently, a new national personnel organization named the Personnel and Guidance Association has been formed by the unification of the National Vocational Guidance Association, the American College Personnel Association, and the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers. It replaces the more loosely knit Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations. The three groups will continue as divisions within the new organization. It is expected that a number of new divisions representing additional special areas of per-

sonnel and guidance work will be formed, preferably by amalgamation with some existing organization but, in some cases, by creation of new ones.

One of the main purposes of the new professional association is to establish a parent organization to bring together personnel and guidance workers from all areas of the field. It is hoped that such an organization will clarify standards of professional qualifications, facilitate communication, foster co-operation, develop greater resources of training and experience for meeting problems, and provide a stronger voice for interpreting personnel work to other professional workers and to the public. The formation of new divisions appealing to interest groups not primarily represented by either of the constituent divisions should increase service rendered to specialized areas of the profession.

The first fiscal year of the new organization will begin on July 1, 1952. It will establish offices in Washington, D.C., at that time. In the meantime, its activities will be carried on primarily through the affiliating organizations. All memberships in the Personnel Guidance Association will be held by virtue of membership in one or more of its divisions. Pending study of its ultimate divisional structure, the association's Executive Council is urging interested persons, particularly industrial personnel workers, secondary-school counselors, elementary-school guidance workers, and persons in community agencies to join one of the constituent associations and thus have a

voice in determining the types of new divisions, location of the national office, the nature of the journal, and the scope of activities.

The officers of the Personnel Guidance Association until 1953 will be: Robert H. Shaffer, of Indiana University, *president*; Donald E. Super, of Teachers College, Columbia University, *president-elect*; and Frank M. Fletcher, of Ohio State University, *treasurer*. The next national convention will be held in Los Angeles, March 30-April 3, 1952.

NEW MEASURES OF MOTIVATION

THAT MOTIVATION plays a fundamental role in learning has long been recognized. It is somewhat surprising, therefore, that objective measurement of the motivation of the student has not been perfected. It is true that teachers and guidance specialists frequently make subjective judgments and even informal investigations of the motivation of individuals. They usually use their conclusions in seeking to explain discrepancies between expected and actual achievement. Failing marks, especially, are often "explained" by saying, "He could do the work, but he just isn't interested in it." Recently there have been several attempts to measure motivation by new methods.

An investigation which seeks to improve predictions of academic success in college is described in the *College Board Review* for November, 1951, by John V. Gilmore, clinical psychologist at the Massachusetts Institute of

Technology and associate professor of psychology at Boston University. Under the title "A New Venture in the Testing of Motivation," he writes:

For many years colleges have been attempting to predict a student's academic success by the use of such measures of intellectual ability as high-school grades, rank in class, and scores on standard I.Q. tests. In this endeavor the colleges have made much progress. . . . However, a great amount of error still creeps into any prediction of scholastic success which an individual college may use.

The number of variables affecting academic achievement is legion. Obviously, one must take into consideration the variation in course content, the grading habits of faculty members, the differences in teaching methods, and differences for some students in the difficulty level of certain courses. But even when all of these factors are considered, they do not seem to account for the difference between the prediction and the actual performance of the student. There are obviously other variables, including motivation, that have thus far proved elusive.

The course of educational psychology in the last twenty-five years has led us finally to an attempt to define and measure motivation as the most important variable which has not entered into our statistical predictions.

The article describes in some detail a Sentence Completion Test which the psychologist uses to diagnose emotional reactions, and it outlines the psychological theory or rationale which underlies the investigation. The author summarizes this in the following paragraphs:

According to our rationale the motive to achieve scholastically is directly associated with the quality of relationships the child has with his parents and with their attitude

toward learning. Our hypothesis is that motivation for academic achievement is associated with a positive relationship with one or both parents.

The most valid approach to the study of motivation as stated in our hypothesis would be to measure as directly as possible the quality of the parent-child relationship. This is not accomplished easily. To discuss honestly and frankly the authentic reaction to one's parents is difficult for most of us. This is particularly true if there are deeply repressed aggressive reactions toward one or both parents. In our study we are attempting to measure these reactions with the use of the Sentence Completion Test, a Check List, and a Health Record.

Another investigation in this field was reported in the *Mathematics Teacher* for November, 1951, under the title "Motivation in Mathematics: Its Theoretical Basis, Measurement, and Relationships with Other Factors." The author, E. I. Sawin, of Syracuse University, studied the relation between scores on the California Test of Personality and scores on a "Motivation Inventory" which he constructed.

These investigations are interesting, not only as steps forward in the measurement of motivation, but also as illustrations of a major shift which has slowly been taking place in the theory of instruction. Most of the literature on motivation in the subject fields at the high-school level is superficial. Much attention has been given to the description of devices for enticing youngsters to study materials which do not appeal to them. Games and contests, visual aids considered from a narrow point of view, tests used as spurs, and rewards or punish-

ments in the form of "marks" are familiar examples of such devices. Meanwhile, psychological theory has included discussions of motivation which analyze it at a much deeper level. Teachers formerly were told that the first step in "the lesson" was "to motivate" the student. Teachers who have kept up to date have learned that the motivation which really influences learning is not so easily injected from outside the student.

Further progress in the measurement of motivation will facilitate the checking and possible modification of the related theory. The role played by such factors as relations with the parent has hitherto been investigated chiefly by case-study methods. Ultimately, measuring instruments suitable for widespread use in schools should become available. When this time arrives, related improvements in instruction and guidance will almost surely follow.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND MINORITY GROUPS

A CONTROVERSY involving science, religion, and the extent to which minority groups should influence the curriculum has been developing in the state of New York. In 1950 the legislature amended the laws to include a provision that "subject to rules and regulations of the Board of Regents, a pupil may be excused from such study of health and hygiene as conflicts with the religion of his parents or guardian."

According to the *New York Times*,

the State Board of Regents, as a result of this legislation, decided to omit from its examinations questions which deal with such topics as how to build up resistance to disease, understanding of current health programs, measures to prevent the spread of communicable diseases, and the role of insects and bacteria in transmission of disease. Various groups are now said to be demanding repeal of the amendment.

The omission of certain questions in the fields of health, hygiene, and biology from the state examinations should not necessarily mean that the topics may not be discussed in a particular local school. Any pupil whose religion conflicts with the teaching can presumably be excused from studying the course, the unit, or the topic. Any argument that to be thus excused embarrasses the pupil, and that therefore all pupils should be excused, should be rejected. The rights of minority groups to their beliefs are a fundamental part of our freedom, but so are the rights of majorities. The provision of opportunity for education in the fields of health and biology which includes the topics mentioned above is undoubtedly desired by a majority of citizens. To decide that this is *religious* instruction, and therefore under the Constitution must be completely excluded from the curriculum, would be equivalent, in effect, to imposing the religious beliefs of a minority on the majority. There is, however, no indication as yet that the permissive fea-

tures of the law are to be interpreted in this way.

In the bulletin *Strengthening Democracy*, published by the Board of Education of the City of New York, pro and con arguments for the repeal of the law are presented. The Associations of Teachers and Chairmen of Biological Sciences call for repeal. The following quotation is taken from their statement:

The law establishes the intolerable principle that nothing can be presented in a public school to which some group of parents objects. This law is a menace not only to public education but to all educational effort because it establishes the principle that a student is to be excused from contact with ideas which at the time he does not hold or which his parents do not believe.

Arguments against repeal are presented by Francis Griffith, Principal of the Richmond Hill High School in New York City. According to Principal Griffith:

[The question at issue] does not involve the sectarian censorship of public education or the preservation of the public educational system, as the biology teachers contend.

The issue is essentially a philosophical one. It involves the rights of parents in the education of their children and the extent, if at all, to which parental rights in education supersede those of the state. Furthermore it involves the right to religious freedom. Can an individual be constrained to study material offensive to his religious beliefs?

This controversy should be followed closely by students of secondary education throughout the country.

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by MAURICE L. HARTUNG, associate professor of the teaching of mathematics at the University of Chicago. B. LAMAR JOHNSON, dean of instruction and librarian at Stephens College in Columbia, Missouri, on leave of absence when he directed the California Study of General Education in the Junior College from June, 1950, to August, 1951, recommends that programs for high schools and junior colleges be so planned as to avoid duplication of material taught and provide a curriculum and guidance based on individual student needs. BERTIS E. CAPEHART, director of guidance at Oak Ridge public schools, Oak Ridge, Tennessee; ALLEN HODGES, school psychologist at the Oak Ridge public schools; and NORMAN BERDAN, director of guidance, Montgomery County Schools, Canajoharie, New York, evaluate the core curriculum at the tenth-grade level at Oak Ridge High School in terms of class and personal-adjustment objectives. ROSEMARY A. SMITH, teacher of English at Greeley High School in Greeley, Colorado, compares the effectiveness of two kinds of preparation for college English: drill in mechanics and practice in writing. GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON, professor of psychology and education at Western Michigan College of Education; HAROLD E. STURM, critic teacher in science at the University of Michigan High School; and LOIS MARION MALLINSON, formerly head of the

commercial department of Eden High School, Eden, New York, investigate the reading difficulty of textbooks used in general science. The selected references on various subject fields have been prepared by the following persons: DORA V. SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago, at present on leave at Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois; EDNA E. EISEN, professor of geography at Kent State University, Kent, Ohio; WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago; GEORGE E. HAWKINS, administrative assistant at Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Illinois; FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean of the College of Education of the University of Washington; and KENNETH D. NORBERG, assistant professor of education and director of the Audio-visual Center at the University of Chicago.

Reviewers of books HERBERT J. GANS, sociologist-planner for PACE Associates, Chicago. W. H. LAURITSEN, chairman of the Health Department, San Diego State College, San Diego, California. W. C. KVARACEUS, professor of education at Boston University. PAUL H. DERR, head of the Department of Physical Education and Intramural Athletics at North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, North Carolina.

TOWARD BETTER RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JUNIOR COLLEGES AND HIGH SCHOOLS¹

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Stephens College

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THE recently completed California Study of General Education in the Junior College included a consideration of a variety of factors which condition general-education developments. Among these are the problems of junior-college-high-school relationships. That these problems are recognized as important in California is indicated by the fact that a state-wide High School-Junior College Affiliation Committee has been organized. This committee, which consists of representative high-school and junior-college administrators, meets twice each year to consider such problems as follow-up studies of high-school and junior-college graduates; co-ordinat-

ing high-school and junior-college programs in vocational education; and the relative responsibility of high schools and junior colleges for general education in United States history, health, family life, communications, and the like. This latter problem is, of course, particularly important for junior colleges in building programs of general education.

BUILDING ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

One of the questions which confront the junior college interested in building a program of general education relates to the extent to which entering students have already achieved the goals of general education. It is, of course, sheer folly and an inexcusable waste of time and energy, of both teachers and students, to offer instruction which is repetitious of materials and outcomes already adequately achieved by students. The reality of this problem and its seriousness in so far as general education is concerned are suggested by the statement of a junior-college student addressed to the director of this study: "Less time should be spent on general courses. A

¹ This article is adapted from chapter xvi of the book by B. Lamar Johnson, *General Education in Action: A Report of the California Study of General Education in the Junior College*, to be published by the American Council on Education in the spring of 1952.

Sponsored by the American Council on Education, the California State Junior College Association, the California State Department of Education, and the School of Education at the University of California in Los Angeles, the study was carried on by the faculties of the public junior colleges of California, from June, 1950, to August, 1951.

two-year program is short enough without spending a lot of time repeating what we learned in high school."

In addition to the work of the Affiliation Committee, the importance of recognizing the high-school experiences and achievements of students entering junior college is highlighted in California by two state-wide developments which include high schools and which, in a sense, parallel, complement, and support the California Study of General Education in the Junior College. These two developments to which high schools of the state are devoting their particular effort are (1) life-adjustment education and (2) the instrumentation of the California State Framework of Public Education.

The emphasis on life-adjustment education is part of a nation-wide program designed to focus the attention of our schools, and particularly our high schools, on the necessity for building programs directly upon the identified characteristics and needs of students and of the society in which they live. The goals of life-adjustment education² are, therefore, co-ordinated with those of general education.

The statement, *A Framework for Public Education in California*,³ has

² Educational Policies Commission, *Planning for American Youth*, p. 43. A Summary of Education for All American Youth. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1944.

³ California Framework Committee, *A Framework for Public Education in California*. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XX, No. 6. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1950.

been prepared during three years of work under the leadership of a representative committee of California educators, including representatives of the junior colleges of the state. The *Framework* applies to the public junior colleges themselves as an integral part of the California system of public secondary education. During the 1950-51 school year, the schools of California were joined in a program to implement the recommendations of the *Framework* statement, in terms of both objectives and methods of procedure. The "purposes of public education in California" parallel in large measure those identified in the General Education Study here reported. These purposes are, of course, receiving emphasis in the high schools of the state.

Certainly these state-wide emphases in California high schools increase the need for recognition by the junior colleges of the previous learning and experience of the entering student. All too frequently junior-college faculties accept general-education objectives and build programs designed to achieve these goals with the apparent assumption that students are entering the junior college with "virgin minds" in so far as previous study and achievement of these outcomes are concerned. Curriculum building of this type results, for example, in programs of family-life education built without regard to previous high-school work in the field, as well as courses in American history and hygiene planned without regard to what

has already been taught in high school. Even more serious, however, this approach to curriculum building and teaching fails to take into account the individuality, achievements and abilities, interests and goals, problems and anxieties of each student.

THREE ESSENTIAL STEPS

The junior college which aims adequately to adapt its program to high schools must take these three steps:

1. Study the characteristics, including achievements, of its entering students. If a faculty is to build a program of general education, the faculty must know the achievements, needs, interests, and hopes of its students.

2. Provide adequate guidance to students—this to take into consideration the individuality of students.

3. Provide a curriculum, both class and extra-class, adapted to, and based on, the particular needs of the students served. Regardless of the effectiveness with which data concerning students are assembled, regardless of the care with which a counseling program is planned and developed, the results will be of little value unless the college provides courses and other experiences, and uses methods of teaching which are adapted to the needs of individual students.

The reader may feel that the three steps suggested above are, in essence, those which must be followed in building any effective program of general education. This is, of course, true. Throughout the report of this study, emphasis is given to the necessity of building the general-education program on the basis of the characteristics of the students—as well as on the

characteristics and needs of the society in which they live. Discussion of the problem of junior-college-high-school relationships offers, however, another opportunity to emphasize the process of designing the educational program to meet the needs of the particular students served. This is, in essence, the solution of problems concerned with high-school relationships.

A number of specific practices are reported by junior colleges as aids to the planning of programs to serve particular students.

In the field of guidance, one important factor is supplying high-school pupils with information about the variety of experiences that will be available to them in the junior college. To describe their offerings, Los Angeles junior colleges have prepared a series of colored slides for showing to Los Angeles high-school Seniors. Junior-college faculty members frequently visit high schools for talks and for conferences with high-school Seniors. High-school Seniors often visit junior colleges to get acquainted with their work and program, their students, and faculty members.

At San Bernardino Valley College, visits to the junior college are not limited to high-school Seniors. Each year junior high school home-room representatives visit the junior college and report back to their rooms on the programs offered and opportunities provided at the junior college. The San Bernardino staff reports that the results of this continuity of background and experience are noticeable in the

activities later planned, particularly those for high-school Seniors.

At John Muir College an experiment was tried by having a one-day exchange of classes by a teacher of the required tenth-grade high-school English class with a teacher of the required eleventh-grade junior-college English class (since John Muir is a four-year junior college, pupils enter at the beginning of the eleventh grade). The high-school pupils were provided with information regarding junior-college offerings and "what junior-college life is really like." The advantages of discussion in a small class group are obvious, particularly when it takes place both with a teacher from the junior college and with a class's own teacher after a fact-finding visit to the junior college. In addition to the guidance values which come directly to pupils from this plan, are the values that an exchange of this type provides for the teacher. One of the instructors participating in the plan states, "Altogether I would say that this has been the most enlightening experience I have had in Pasadena. . . . I hope that some day we will have a planned program of exchanges."

Contra Costa Junior College District employs as part-time counselors selected high-school faculty members (frequently deans of boys and deans of girls) who advise with high-school pupils regarding the junior college and its offerings. In describing the Contra Costa plan, the director of curriculum for the district writes:

In the fall of 1949, prior to the opening of either the West or the East college, a series of workshops was scheduled. The first four were planned as an in-service training program for the counselors. At the first meeting, persons from four-year institutions in the vicinity were invited to discuss with the counselors their programs, admission requirements, and their relationship with a junior college such as ours.

The second meeting, at which Dr. McDaniel of Stanford University and Donald Kitch of the State Department of Education were present, was devoted to a discussion of the basic principles which should be followed in a sound program of student personnel at both high-school and junior-college level, emphasizing the importance of having the program at the two levels lead toward a continuous counseling program.

The third meeting was devoted to a discussion of various aspects of vocational education. From that point on we worked for several Saturdays as subcommittees on the following problems:

1. What are ways and means of gathering data about high-school Seniors who would be interested in coming to the junior college in the spring and the next fall?
2. What are the most effective ways and means of gathering data about residents of the county who were attending other junior colleges?
3. What kind of testing program should the junior college establish?
4. What kinds of permanent records are now kept by the high schools; what kind should be kept by the junior college; and what should be their relationship?
5. What are the present responsibilities of the community counselors in their respective communities, and what should be their continued responsibilities as community counselors?

Following the work of these subcommittees, the group gathered together as a whole, and reports on the recommendations of each committee were made. Throughout

the rest of the spring, the community counselors served as representatives of the junior college in their respective communities, doing such things as counseling students, referring students to the junior-college counseling staff, disseminating information about the development of the junior-college program, and helping in the administration of the testing program.

This year we have continued with a similar program that is somewhat more limited in its scope and in the amount of responsibility that we are asking community counselors to assume. As a result of our experience, it is our conclusion that the idea is a good one. There are, however, some problems. Also, there has been some question raised, both by our own people and by the high schools, as to whether or not the College should be paying high-school counselors for services which they should render as staff members of the high schools. However, I am confident that we will continue with this kind of a program, for it has demonstrated its value, particularly in bringing the junior-college and high-school counseling programs together and in making certain that a district such as ours does have direct contact with the students in the many communities that the junior-college district serves.

Providing a curriculum based upon the characteristics of students, including their past experiences and their achievements, is, as has been pointed out, fundamental in the matter of junior-college-high-school relationships. If the junior college assembles data regarding its students and if it provides an adequate guidance program, its job of serving the high-school graduate is only partially complete. In addition, the junior college must offer an educational program based upon the needs of its students. As a matter

of fact, of course, the guidance program itself will be only partially complete, if the curriculum fails to include experiences, courses as well as extra-class activities, adapted to the particular students enrolled in the junior college.

Some of the guidance activities described above (for example, the exchange of teachers at John Muir College and the employment of high-school staff members as counselors at Contra Costa) provide a type of contact and experience which are helpful in developing programs adapted to the high-school background of entering students.

Several cities of the state, San Diego and Long Beach, for example, have city-wide curriculum planning groups which aim to provide a continuity of program from kindergarten through the junior college. At Sacramento, continuity of program is facilitated by regularly scheduled meetings of high-school principals and of the president of the junior college with the city superintendent and the associate superintendent of schools. Any curriculum change contemplated at either the high-school or the junior-college level is discussed and studied by this group. The group likewise considers matters of overlapping or conflict in the programs. For example, during the 1950-51 school year the group considered the problems arising from the fact that the required hygiene course in the junior college repeatedly used the same motion pictures, without differentiation of pur-

pose, that had previously been used in the health course required in high school. The solution which emerged from an examination of this problem, in co-operation with teachers of health education, was not the arbitrary one of forbidding the use of the same films at the high-school and the junior-college level. Rather, the plan recognizes the possibilities of such dual utilization, if instructors are aware of, and provide for, a differentiation of purpose.

In a number of junior-college districts, high-school and junior-college faculty members have regularly scheduled meetings to discuss relationships and particularly continuity of program. In Stanislaus County, for example, monthly meetings of representatives from the high schools of the county and from Modesto Junior College are held. Organized through the office of the county superintendent of schools, these meetings are given over to consideration of mutual problems and particularly to matters of relationship between the junior college and the high schools. At San Bernardino Valley College, high-school teachers and junior-college instructors in such fields as art, music, social science, business education, English, home and family life meet regularly for co-operative curriculum planning.

Building a junior-college program on the basis of the previous high-school experience of students is not, however, one which is dependent entirely on group or departmental work

and planning. Illustrative of what the individual faculty member can do is a report of the hygiene course at West Contra Costa Junior College. At the opening of the course the instructor outlined problems and areas in health education which the class might study during the semester and invited students to indicate those problems which, in their judgment, were of sufficient importance to warrant study. When the responses were summarized, the instructor was surprised to observe that the subjects of reproduction and of sex education were omitted from the students' recommendations. Further inquiry revealed, however, that the students in the course had come from high schools where the health-education program had given significant and, from their view, adequate attention to these problems. With this background, the instructor provided opportunity for individual study of reproduction to the few students who indicated a particular need. For the class as a whole, however, instruction in this area was minimized and useless duplication avoided.

The experience of the hygiene instructor at West Contra Costa Junior College is illustrative both of what an individual teacher can do in the matter of high-school relationships and of a danger which is not avoided in many junior colleges. Too often, instructors plan a course ahead of time, simply on the basis of problems they themselves select as being important for living, and without regard for the previous

background and achievement of their particular students. The tragedy of wasted time, boredom, and restlessness is but suggested by what might have happened in the Contra Costa Junior College hygiene class if the instructor had failed to take into account the background of her students. The information might, of course, have been secured by other methods, including inventories and diagnostic and achievement tests. The use of a particular method is not advocated here. What is essential, however, is a recognition by the junior-college staff, including the members responsible for curriculum building and including counselors and individual teachers, of the characteristics and backgrounds of students. Only in this way can the junior college achieve effective relations with the high school.

PROBLEMS OR OPPORTUNITIES?

Reference has been made earlier to the *problems* of junior-college-high-school relationships. Actually, these problems, when they are intelligently faced, represent *opportunities* which are open to junior colleges interested in building programs of general education. Any sound program of general education in the junior college must be built upon the characteristics of entering students, including their high-school achievement of the goals of general education. This implies a close working relationship between the junior college and the high school, with the efforts of each co-ordinated with those of the other. It further implies avoidance in the junior college of wasteful, repetitious teaching, planned to achieve general-education outcomes already attained in high school.

AN OBJECTIVE EVALUATION OF A CORE PROGRAM

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THE EMPHASIS placed in the modern educational program on the teaching approach commonly referred to as "core curriculum" has resulted in considerable debate, if not confusion. Such is definitely the case at the Oak Ridge High School, where strong effort has been made to establish a core curriculum. This paper does not attempt to define the core program but describes an attempt to evaluate the outcome of such a program and to measure the differences in the outcomes from the results obtained through a more traditional program.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CORE CURRICULUM

The core program in the Oak Ridge High School is optional at the tenth-grade level. In Grades IX and XI a core program is required of all students. Thus, a student progressing from Grade IX through Grade XI is enrolled in two years of a core program and may be enrolled in three.

The core program in the Oak Ridge schools began as a fusion of two subjects. At the ninth-grade level, social

living and English were combined to allow a daily two-hour program; at the tenth-grade level, world history and world literature were fused; at the eleventh-grade level, American history and American literature were combined. By such fusion, a larger block of time was provided than the usual 55-minute class period, and the problem approach was utilized.

From these beginnings our core program has developed and grown. It emphasizes the importance of pupil-teacher planning and offers greater flexibility in organization, procedure, content, and materials than would be possible in the traditional subject-matter fields. It affords greater opportunity for more effective guidance by the teacher because of the longer contact with the students in the class. It emphasizes the development of the whole personality of the child and is just as much concerned with the development of normal personality characteristics, such as attitudes, critical thinking, interests, and social adequacy, as with the acquisition of skills and understandings.

No evaluation can rightfully be made without consideration of objectives. There are certain principles upon which the core curriculum may be justified. This paper describes an attempt at objective evaluation—a measurement made on the tenth-grade level for the reason that on this level alone could a control group and an experimental group be arranged.

OBJECTIVES MEASURED

From a list of objectives formulated for the core curriculum, the following were selected as those which might lend themselves to objective measurement by available tests:

1. Acquisition of skills and knowledge
2. Development of critical thinking
3. Development of effective work habits and study skills
4. Improvement of social and personal adjustment of the pupil
5. Development of social attitudes and a sense of social responsibility
6. Development of interests to include civic, national, and international affairs

Not only do these objectives seem to be reasonable, but they are not radically different from those sought by the more traditional program.

In our efforts to evaluate the outcomes of a specific program, we found ourselves limited by the available instruments of evaluation. The tests finally selected were the following: (1) Cooperative English Test A, Mechanics of Expression; (2) Cooperative English Test B, Effectiveness of Expression; (3) Wrightstone Scale of Civic Beliefs; (4) Wrenn Study-Habits Inventory; and (5) Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory.

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The investigation reported in this paper is based on data for the year 1949-50. During that year, 225 students were enrolled in nine tenth-grade classes in English, and three tenth-grade core classes were scheduled with an average enrolment of 28 in each class. The experimental design involved matched pairs of pupils, which allowed us to set up an experimental and a control group during the 1949-50 school year.

A pupil in the core curriculum was matched with a pupil who was enrolled under the regular curriculum in the school. The criteria for matching were sex, intelligence, chronological age, and reading-grade equivalent. After the matching was completed, the equivalence of the experimental and the control groups was checked by computing the means of the intelligence quotients, chronological ages, and reading-grade equivalents of the two groups. Means of the two matched pupil groups for the year 1949-50 are presented in Table 1. It should be remembered that the groups as such were not brought together in any one classroom at any one time. The pupils in the experimental group were from three different core classes, while the pupils in the control group attended nine different English classes.

The mean difference between the experimental and the control groups on each of the three variables is small and insignificant. The plan for evaluation of growth in certain knowledges, skills, attitudes, and powers

of critical thinking was to test the experimental (core) and control (non-core) groups before and after operation of the experimental factor in order to compare growth. Any differences in growth, it was felt, could be attributed to the experimental factor, the core curriculum. As a consequence of dealing with matched pairs in these two groups, a correlation arises which has been taken into account in the calculation of Fisher's t .¹

TABLE 1

MEAN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT, CHRONOLOGICAL AGE, AND READING GRADE OF 28 MATCHED PAIRS OF PUPILS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Measure	Experimental Group (Core)	Control Group (Non-core)
Intelligence quotient...	102.46	102.64
Chronological age (in months).....	187.54	187.39
Reading-grade equivalent.....	10.52	10.43

This study was primarily designed to compare the gains which occurred between these two groups. It is true that there were differences in initial levels of performance on the instruments used to measure the objectives. However, as shown in Table 1, there were no significant differences in levels of ability which might account for this difference in initial achievement. It is possible to utilize analysis of covariance as a method of comparison, but, since in our experimental design this procedure was not included, it is likely, as Edwards points out,

that nothing much will be gained from the indiscriminate application of the analysis of covariance.²

Acknowledgment must here be made of other factors which might tend to invalidate the deduction that differences in gains could be attributed to the core curriculum: teacher differences, the two-hour period in the core classes, the fact that the control group had no study of history, the combinations of experiences obtained from classes during the remainder of the day.

The tests were administered to the control and the experimental groups during the second week in December and again during the latter part of May. The limitations due to the fact that the experimental factor was permitted to operate for less than five months are recognized; a longer period of time would have been desirable. Comparable forms of the Cooperative Tests were used during the December and the May testing periods, but different forms were not available for the other instruments.

During the lapse of time, no effort was made to inform the various class teachers about the investigation. This was done purposefully in an effort to insure a normal program, with no undue emphasis on any of the areas tested by the instruments used and to prevent any teacher apprehension that one teacher might be compared with another. Thus, our purpose was to measure outcomes of methods

¹ Quinn McNemar, *Psychological Statistics*, p. 64. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1949.

² Allen L. Edwards, *Experimental Design in Psychological Research*, p. 355. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1950.

rather than respective abilities to teach in certain areas.

TEST RESULTS

In Table 2 are presented the means and the mean differences between the initial scores and the final scores for the experimental and the control groups. The table shows that in all

in May as in December on the Effectiveness of Expression subtest of the Cooperative English Test.

The net gains, that is, the mean differences in the gains between the experimental and the control groups, are given in the last column of Table 2. For example, on the Effectiveness of Expression subtest the superiority

TABLE 2

MEAN SCORES AND MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES EARNED BY 28 MATCHED PAIRS OF PUPILS ON INITIAL TESTS (DECEMBER, 1949) AND FINAL TESTS (MAY, 1950) IN ENGLISH, STUDY SKILLS, CIVIC BELIEFS, PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

TEST	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			CONTROL GROUP			DIFFERENCE IN MEAN GAINS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS
	December Score	May Score	Difference	December Score	May Score	Difference	
Cooperative English Test:							
Mechanics of Expression	36.04	43.96	7.92	38.61	46.71	8.10	-0.18
Effectiveness of Expression	40.11	43.07	2.96	43.81	43.81	0.00	2.96
Wrightstone Scale of Civic Beliefs	110.54	113.61	3.07	109.96	112.00	2.04	1.03
Wrenn Study-Habits Inventory	24.30	37.70	13.40	21.22	26.56	5.34	8.06
Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory:							
Analytical Thinking	19.14	18.32	-.82	21.32	21.68	0.36	-1.18
Confidence	26.82	29.75	2.93	29.86	29.75	-.11	3.04
Sociability	25.07	27.32	2.25	29.18	29.11	-.07	2.32
Personal Relations	25.75	26.97	1.22	28.68	28.36	-.32	1.54
Emotional Stability	29.64	32.64	3.00	31.50	33.50	2.00	1.00
Home Satisfaction	36.39	37.86	1.47	41.72	42.32	0.60	0.87

but one instance, namely, the subtest on analytical thinking, the experimental group means were higher in May than in December. This negative difference indicates less measured "introverted thinking" on the part of the experimental group. The control group means on the final tests were lower than those on the initial tests in three areas of the Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory. The control group made the same score

of the experimental gain is 2.96. With the exception of a slight loss on the subtest Mechanics of Expression and a somewhat higher loss on the Analytical Thinking subtest of the Heston battery, the remaining differences in the gains are consistently in favor of the experimental group.

Although the experimental group is rather consistently superior, how reliable are these differences? The statistical significance of the mean dif-

ferences in the gains of the two groups is given in Table 3. Only the mean gains which are significant or which approach statistical significance are included in this table.

In general, a difference which is beyond the one per cent level of confidence is designated as highly significant and could be expected to occur one out of a hundred times by chance alone. A difference which is significant at the 5 per cent level is considered statistically significant. In addition to the 5 and one per cent

group (core students) gained significantly more than did the control group (non-core students). On the Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory, Confidence Scale, the experimental group gained significantly more than did the control group.

On the Sociability Scale of the Heston Inventory, a mean gain difference in favor of the experimental group is significant at the 10 per cent level, suggesting that such a gain is "probably significant" but should be verified by further research.

TABLE 3
SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INITIAL AND FINAL TESTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Test	Difference	Standard Error of Difference*	t	Level of Confidence (Per Cent)
Cooperative English Test: Effectiveness of Expression.	2.96	1.47	2.01	5
Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory: Confidence.....	3.04	1.56	1.95	5
Sociability.....	2.32	1.27	1.84	Less than 10

* The standard error of the difference was computed by the usual formula for calculation of the standard error of correlated measures. See P. O. Johnson, *Statistical Methods in Research*, p. 79. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.

levels of significance, a third statistical standard has been found to be useful to the educator and social scientist. This is known as the 10 per cent level of confidence. Statisticians describe the 10 per cent level as "probably significant but requiring more research."

Two of the mean gain differences are statistically significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. On the Cooperative English Test, Effectiveness of Expression, the experimental

SUMMARY

From the data reported in this study, it may be inferred that growth has taken place in both the experimental and the control groups as measured by the test battery. The experimental group, however, shows higher gains than does the control group. While not all these differences in the mean gains in favor of the experimental group are statistically significant, they are conspicuous by their consistency.

The following conclusions are justified.

1. On the average, pupils enrolled in the core curriculum made significantly greater gains on effectiveness of expression than did the pupils not enrolled in the core curriculum.

2. On the average, pupils enrolled in the core curriculum showed significantly higher gains than did pupils not participating in the core curriculum within the area of self-confidence.

3. It is also probable that sociability was developed more fully in the core curriculum than in the non-core curriculum. This conclusion is tentative, however, and must be tested by further study.

4. The probability of finding large changes or significant differences between the control and the experimental groups is not too great because of the many uncontrollable factors involved in studies of this kind. Too, the tests chosen are, at best, only approximations of the kinds of measurements needed to appraise progress toward the objectives set up.

5. The experimental group showed marked improvement in study skills. The level of confidence is between 10 and 5 per cent and, while this is not a clear-cut significant difference, it suggests that a difference exists which cannot be attributed to chance. This is a very commendable gain for the core group as opposed to the smaller gain made by the non-core group. The core group also showed greater growth in civic attitudes, as measured

by the Wrightstone Scale of Civic Beliefs—a device designed to measure democratic attitudes on civic issues. This may be explained in part by the considerable use made of library and other resource materials by the experimental group.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Another approach to evaluation of the core curriculum could be made by matching the control and the experimental groups on measures of the objectives as set up. As has been noted, there were initial differences between the two groups in some of the areas measured by the tests.

A longer lapse of time than the five months used in this experiment would be desirable. If possible, it might also be desirable to test groups over a period of time extending from entrance into Grade IX through Grade XI, utilizing one group that would have three years of a core program and one group that followed a straight curriculum pattern. Perhaps a more effective evaluation might be obtained by locating and testing in similar fashion such groups in a number of different schools.

A more adequate evaluation might have been made had it been possible to use a control group that was currently enrolled in separate classes in English and in world history to offset the handicap of the lack of study of history suffered by our control group in comparison with the experimental group.

EFFECTIVE PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE ENGLISH

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THE QUESTION of how best to prepare students for college English classes has become a fiery issue in light of the results of recent research on the effectiveness of the usual methods of teaching English. Misunderstandings and insufficient information concerning the demands that colleges make of their entering Freshmen lend heat to the debate.

In spite of the relatively few students who go to college, high-school English teachers constantly stand in fear of the college teacher. Parents worry about whether their high-school children will be *ready* for college. Curriculum makers fear to set up the kinds of programs that they really know would be best because of possible failure to meet the demands of the colleges and because of pressure from parents. College teachers of English demand more adequate preparation, but they are divided in their opinions concerning the best method of securing it.

PURPOSE OF PRESENT STUDY

Apparently no conflict exists between the demands of the colleges and the main objective of high-school composition. The colleges expect their

students to express ideas in writing and speaking with reasonable facility and competence, and the development of such ability is also the main objective of high-school composition. In fact, in many college Freshman courses in English, this is the main objective. The issue can be resolved, it seems to me, by finding the best method of meeting this objective. At the present time, high schools are attempting to prepare students for college Freshman English through actual practice in writing, through drill in the mechanics of writing, or through both methods. The present study compared the effectiveness of drill in mechanics with practice in writing as preparation for Freshman English at the University of Colorado. It also showed the relation between type of preparation and achievement on the initial English placement test. Practice in writing included the writing of themes, reports, letters, and the like. Drill in mechanics included drill of the work-book type in usage, grammar, punctuation, and other grammatical points.

The University of Colorado places its entering Freshmen in the Freshman English courses according to

their achievement on the placement tests.¹ Those who do poorly in English take a sub-Freshman course. Those who do satisfactory work take the regular first-quarter English course. Those who do exceptionally well on all placement tests may omit the regular first-quarter course. Since this study used only the sub-Freshman and regular first-quarter English classes, it did not concern those who were superior in scholastic aptitude as shown by the placement tests.

The major objective of both regular and sub-Freshman English courses at the University of Colorado is the development of ability to express ideas in writing. To accomplish this, the English department recommends extensive theme-writing in all written composition courses and the use of some drill material in the sub-Freshman English courses.

CHARACTER OF HIGH-SCHOOL PREPARATION

During the fall of 1950, the members of every sub-Freshman and every regular first-quarter Freshman English class at the University of Colorado filled out questionnaires giving information about the amount and type of preparation given them during their last year of high-school English and an estimate of the amount and type of English preparation in previous high-school years. An analysis of the 713 questionnaires revealed the following information about the

¹ The English placement test at the University of Colorado is part of a battery of tests in English, reading, and mathematics which together make up the academic aptitude test.

preparation in composition in the students' last year of high-school English:

1. The type of preparation ranged from equal practice in writing and drill in mechanics to exclusive preparation in one type or the other.

2. The amount of practice varied from daily drill and writing to no drill or writing.

3. The greatest number of students had had (a) daily drill with practice in writing once a week during the year or (b) practice in writing and drill, each once a week during the year, with the remaining classes devoted to language-arts activities.

4. The most common patterns of writing-practice assignments were once a week, once a month, and once a term.

5. The most common patterns of mechanics-drill assignments were daily during the year, daily for a semester, and once a week during the year.

6. The majority of students had had more drill in mechanics than practice in writing. The per cent of students with drill in mechanics was slightly higher than that of students who had had equal practice in both but almost twice as great as the per cent of students who had had a greater amount of practice in writing than in drill in mechanics.

RESULTS ON ENGLISH PLACEMENT TESTS

A comparison of the extreme groups (those having had drill in mechanics daily for a year and those having had practice in writing at least once a week during the year) revealed that

in mechanics. Table 1 also indicates that the final English marks at the end of the fall quarter supported the implication of the instructors' ratings that practice in writing was more effective than drill in mechanics as preparation for Freshman English at the University of Colorado. Seven more students who had had practice in writing received a mark of C, but seven more students who had had drill in mechanics received a mark of F.

Following are the facts about the effect of earlier preparation on the achievement of these students. Five students in the drill group had had more writing practice in previous high-school years than the insignificant amount reported for their last year of high-school English. The marks of these students for the first quarter of college English were as follows: one B, three C's, and one D. Fourteen of the writing group reported a greater amount of drill in earlier high-school years. Their quarterly marks in college ranged from B to F: three B's, six C's, three D's, and two F's.

A comparison of the final marks with achievement on the academic aptitude test and on the English placement test revealed that practice in writing may be particularly effective preparation for students who rank fairly low in scholastic aptitude.

CONCLUSIONS

The major conclusion from the study is that practice in writing is

more effective preparation than is drill in mechanics for Freshman English at the University of Colorado. Two important implications from the data are (1) that a great amount of practice in writing is at least as effective as is drill in mechanics in preparation for the English placement test at the University of Colorado; (2) that practice in writing may be superior to drill in mechanics as preparation for students who rank fairly low in scholastic aptitude.

The implications from this study should not only clarify the issue of how best to provide effective preparation for college English at the University of Colorado but should also redirect the emphasis in high-school English to the main objective of composition. The experience of expressing ideas in writing provides effective preparation for the college Freshman English courses and for the English placement test. Experience in expressing ideas in writing is a direct approach to the objective of written composition. This approach provides the best preparation for students at any level of scholastic aptitude, and it may be particularly valuable for those who rank fairly low.

The teaching of high-school English becomes simpler for the teacher in that one method meets the writing needs of all the students in a class. Instruction in written composition for the student planning to go to college should not differ, except in degree, from instruction given any other pupil in the class.

THE READING DIFFICULTY OF TEXTBOOKS FOR GENERAL SCIENCE

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INTRODUCTION

THE VALUES DERIVED from the judicious use of textbooks in the teaching and learning processes have long been recognized. These values are indicated in the Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education as follows:

In general, what seems likely to prove most satisfactory is to select a basic textbook that provides a good general outline of the course and the primary text materials which all the class may be expected to study and then to supplement this foundational material with a variety of materials from other textbooks, periodicals, and reference works.¹

It is obvious that the value of any textbook is limited by its reading difficulty for the students for whom it is designed. In view of these limitations, two groups of studies by Curtis² and

by Mallinson and others³ have been undertaken to determine the levels of reading difficulty of textbooks of science. Although these studies were undertaken about twelve years apart (1938 and 1950), the conclusions from them are about the same. In essence they indicate:

¹ Francis D. Curtis, *Investigations of Vocabulary in Textbooks of Science for Secondary Schools*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938.

² a) George Greisen Mallinson, Harold E. Sturm, and Robert E. Patton, "The Reading Difficulty of Textbooks in Elementary Science," *Elementary School Journal*, L (April, 1950), 460-63.

b) George Greisen Mallinson, Harold E. Sturm, and Lois Marion Mallinson, "The Reading Difficulty of Textbooks in High-School Biology," *American Biology Teacher*, XII (November, 1950), 151-56.

c) George Greisen Mallinson, Harold E. Sturm, and Lois M. Mallinson, "The Reading Difficulty of Textbooks in Junior High School Science," *School Review*, L (December, 1950), 536-40.

d) George Greisen Mallinson, Harold E. Sturm, and Lois M. Mallinson, "The Reading Difficulty of Textbooks in High School Physics," *Science Education* (forthcoming).

¹ *Science Education in American Schools*, p. 48. Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1947.

1. That the reading levels of many textbooks in science are too advanced for the students for whom they are written.

2. That the differences between the levels of reading difficulty of the easiest and the most difficult textbooks in any area of science are significant.

3. That in some textbooks of science whose *average* level of reading difficulty seems satisfactory, there are passages that would be difficult even for some college students.

4. That many textbooks of science contain nontechnical words that could be replaced with easier synonyms.

In view of the conclusions thus obtained, it was decided to extend the investigations to include science textbooks that had not been analyzed in order to determine whether their levels of reading difficulty were also higher than might be desirable. Hence, this investigation deals with textbooks for general science.

METHODS EMPLOYED

A search was made to locate the titles of textbooks designed for use in general science. The search revealed sixteen such books, all of which were used in this investigation. Since analysis of all the textual material in all the textbooks was impractical, we employed a modification of the sampling technique suggested by Flesch⁴ for use with his formula. It was decided to select from each textbook one sample passage for each one hundred pages or fraction thereof, but not less than five passages from any one textbook.

The number of pages in each book

⁴ Rudolf Flesch, *The Art of Plain Talk*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

was computed by counting from the first page designated by an Arabic numeral to the last page of the last chapter. Pages upon which were found chapter endings, supplementary activities, and questions were included in the count. The pages upon which were found indexes, glossaries, and tables of contents were excluded.

The number of pages in each textbook was then divided by the number of samples to be taken from the book. In this way, each textbook was divided into sections of an equal number of pages. A page was then selected from each of the sections by using a table of random numbers.

A one-hundred-word sample was taken from each page thus selected by counting from the first word of the first new paragraph on that page. If the page contained no reading material, the sample was selected from the next page that did. Legends under illustrations on these pages were disregarded. These samples were then analyzed by use of the Flesch formula.

The Flesch formula takes cognizance of the number of words in the sentences found in the sample passages, the number of personal references (*we*, *they*, etc.) in the passages, and the number of affixes and suffixes (syllabification) to the words. These various aspects of sentence structure are measured in each of the one-hundred-word samples and are translated into a reading-difficulty score by means of the formula. The reading-difficulty score is converted, in turn, into a grade-level value of

reading difficulty. The conversion is made by using Table 1.

Table 2 lists the following information for the textbooks designed for general science: (1) the textbook publishers (designated by the letters A, B,

C, etc.); (2) the reading-difficulty scores of the samples taken from the textbooks; (3) the average reading-difficulty score for each textbook; and (4) the grade level of difficulty for each book.

A survey of the data in Table 2 indicates that the levels of reading difficulty of the textbooks for general science vary greatly. But there is no evidence in these tables to indicate that the differences between the levels of difficulty of the easiest and the most difficult textbooks are significant. Hence, it was decided to compute the significances of the differences between the levels of reading difficulty of the easiest and the most difficult textbooks.

The books were classified into four groups according to ascending order of difficulty. The first group consists of

TABLE 1

GRADE LEVELS OF DIFFICULTY EQUIVALENT TO READING-DIFFICULTY SCORES*

Reading-Difficulty Score	Description of Style	Grade Level of Difficulty
0-1.....	Very easy	Grade IV completed
1-2.....	Easy	Grade V completed
2-3.....	Fairly easy	Grade VI completed
3-4.....	Standard	Grade VII or VIII
4-5.....	Fairly difficult	Two years of high school
5-6.....	Difficult	High school and some college
6 and up..	Very difficult	College completed

* Rudolf Flesch, *op. cit.*, p. 205.

TABLE 2

LEVELS OF READING DIFFICULTY FOR TEXTBOOKS FOR GENERAL SCIENCE

PUBLISHER	READING-DIFFICULTY SCORE FOR SAMPLE								AVERAGE READING-DIFFICULTY SCORE*	GRADE LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY†
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
A.....	2.73	3.38	3.47	1.59	2.01	2.93	2.69	VI completed
B.....	1.81	3.12	3.62	4.17	2.40	3.18	3.57	3.25	3.14	VII
C.....	3.78	2.07	2.66	3.28	3.11	3.12	2.91	4.81	3.22	VII
D.....	3.79	3.96	2.73	2.86	3.02	3.70	2.58	3.23	VII completed
E.....	2.13	3.71	4.94	2.33	3.99	3.42	VII completed
F.....	3.32	4.36	2.79	3.39	3.15	4.28	3.65	3.56	VIII
G.....	3.05	3.71	3.92	3.05	4.09	3.03	4.16	3.57	VIII
H.....	4.24	3.41	3.44	4.89	2.86	3.48	3.72	VIII completed
I.....	2.18	5.23	4.02	3.48	2.34	5.88	3.38	3.79	VIII completed
J.....	3.44	2.79	2.98	3.91	3.34	6.31	3.99	3.82	VIII completed
K.....	3.86	3.87	3.62	5.67	2.98	3.73	3.18	3.84	VIII completed
L.....	3.41	2.13	4.81	4.51	3.33	3.82	3.79	5.28	3.89	VIII completed
M.....	3.84	3.67	5.67	3.76	3.80	4.15	IX
N.....	3.61	6.38	4.81	4.03	6.19	3.31	2.81	3.41	4.32	IX completed
O.....	3.41	4.00	4.05	4.25	5.09	6.91	4.70	4.63	X
P.....	4.35	2.79	7.85	4.12	4.08	4.64	X

* The average reading-difficulty score for all the textbooks for general science is 3.71, which is equivalent to a grade level of difficulty of approximately Grade VIII.

† Grade levels of difficulty were computed by using data in Table 1.

the four "easiest" books; the second group, of the next four with respect to difficulty; the third group, the next four; and the fourth group, of the four most difficult. Significances of differences were then computed between various groups, as well as between combinations of groups, and individual textbooks. The statistical device employed was Fisher's *t* cited by Guilford.⁵ Table 3 lists the significances of the differences. All are very significant except the difference between Groups 2 and 3, which is not significant, and the difference between Groups 3 and 4, which is a borderline case.

CONCLUSIONS

Any conclusions that are drawn must be considered in the light of several factors. Two of the more important are these: (1) Many students are *below* average in reading ability. Hence for any particular grade level, the reading difficulty of the textbooks should be below that of the grade in order to be suitable for many students. (2) Textbooks for general science are used either for a one-year course at the ninth-grade level or for a two-year course at the seventh- and eighth-grade levels.

In view of these two factors and in so far as the techniques used in the study may be valid, the following conclusions seem defensible.

1. Examination of Table 2 indicates that the levels of reading difficulty of passages within the separate textbooks vary greatly. The easiest

⁵ J. P. Guilford, *Psychometric Methods*, pp. 61-62. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1936.

passage in the textbook of Publisher B has a grade level of difficulty of Grade V completed; the most difficult passage, of Grade VIII. The easiest passage in the textbook of Publisher P has a grade level of difficulty of Grade VI completed; the most difficult, of college completed. If these two are representative of the variations of levels within a book, it is clear that in any textbook some passages are not

TABLE 3
SIGNIFICANCES OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
LEVELS OF DIFFICULTY OF GENERAL-
SCIENCE TEXTBOOKS

Groups Compared	Mean Difference	Standard Error of Difference	<i>t</i>	Probability Level
1 and 2.....	0.495	.183	2.70	.01
2 and 3.....	.251	.232	1.08	.05
3 and 4.....	.600	.315	1.90	.05
2 and 4.....	.851	.280	3.04	.01
1 and 3.....	.746	.233	3.20	.01
A and all others....	1.090	.298	3.66	.01
1 and 2 with 3 and 4...	.599	.119	5.03	*
A and O....	1.945	.487	4.00	.01

* Less than .01.

likely to cause difficulty for any of the students for whom they are designed but that other passages are likely to cause difficulty for some students, as in the case of Publisher B; and for all students, as in the case of Publisher P, for whom they are designed.

Further, it is clear that the average reading-difficulty score for a textbook may be somewhat misleading. Some textbooks that have many extremely difficult passages may be balanced by some very easy passages.

2. The grade levels of difficulty of the textbooks vary greatly. The easi-

est textbook has a level of difficulty of Grade VI completed. It is unlikely that this textbook will prove difficult for many students whether the book is used in Grades VII, VIII, or IX.

Further, the most difficult textbook with a level of difficulty of Grade X is likely to be difficult to read for all but the best students at whatever level general science is taught.

3. As compared with series of textbooks for junior high school science, textbooks for general science that are designed for essentially the same grade levels have a much greater range of reading difficulty. As a group, series of textbooks for junior high school science range in level of difficulty from Grade VI completed to Grade VIII completed. Those for general science range from Grade VI completed to Grade X.

4. As with the textbooks for areas of science other than general science, the earlier passages in general-science textbooks do not seem to be consistently lower in level of reading difficulty than the later passages. Hence, no apparent provision is made for growth of reading ability during the year or years in which the books are used.

5. Table 3 indicates that the books tend to fall into three categories with

respect to difficulty. The easiest quarter (four textbooks) is significantly less difficult than the middle half (eight textbooks). The middle half is significantly less difficult than the most difficult quarter (four textbooks). Further, there are significant differences in levels of difficulty between (a) the easiest textbook and all the others, (b) the easiest half and the most difficult half, and (c) the easiest and the most difficult textbooks.

6. It seems reasonable to state from the conclusions already listed that the differences found make level of reading difficulty a valid criterion for use in the selection of a textbook.

7. In view of the levels of reading difficulty, it may be concluded that many of the textbooks now in use for general science are more suitable for use at the ninth-grade level than at the seventh- and eighth-grade levels. Hence, certain adjustments need to be made in textbooks if they are to conform with the trend of "moving general science" into Grades VII and VIII. It is recognized that the rather marked trend away from using two books in Grades VII and VIII is likely to continue. Hence, single textbooks for general science need to be written with lower levels of reading difficulty so as to be suitable for use in these two grades.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS



THE SAME GROUPING of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as has been used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-51, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

ENGLISH¹

DORA V. SMITH

University of Minnesota

83. BALLETT, ARTHUR H. "Oral Interpretation in the English Class," *English Journal*, XXXIX (December, 1950), 560-67.

Gives practical help and inspiration for oral interpretation of literature.

84. *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools*. Compiled by a Joint Committee of the American Library Association,

¹ See also Item 474 (De Boer) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1950, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 444 (Russell) and Item 524 (Jordan) in the list appearing in the October, 1951, number of the same journal.

tion, National Council of Teachers of English, and National Education Association, Dorothea Dawson, chairman. Chicago: American Library Association, 1950 (fifth edition). Pp. vi+196.

Offers a useful reference collection of titles for high-school libraries.

85. BLEWETT, THOMAS T. "Experiment in the Measurement of Listening at the College Level," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLIV (April, 1951), 575-85.

Gives results of a test of factual and inferential listening for 150 students at Stephens College, with correlation of results in reading, English, and intelligence.

86. *Books for You*. Committee on Senior High School Book List, Mark Neville, chairman and editor. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1951. Pp. vi+130.

Presents a topical and carefully graded list of books for Grades IX-XII.

87. BRITTON, WAYNE L. "A College Freshman Course," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (March, 1951), 157-59.

Discusses a course in communication at San Francisco State College.

88. CAFFREY, JOHN. "Heresy and the Cultural Lag: English Grammar," *Educational Forum*, XV (March, 1951), 353-58.

Protests against "intellectually muscle-bound" teaching of language in the face of research by Fries and others.

89. DALE, EDGAR, and MORRISON, JOHN. *Motion Picture Discrimination: An Annotated Bibliography*. Series I, Modern Media of Education, Vol. I, No. 8. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, [n.d.]. Pp. vi+42.
Gives a helpful discussion of principles involved in motion-picture discrimination.
90. DAVIES, RUTH. "A Defense of Freshmen," *College English*, XII (May, 1951), 440-48.
Describes an attempt to introduce a sense of discovery into Freshman English in college.
91. DE BOER, JOHN J.; KAULFERS, WALTER V.; and MILLER, HELEN RAND. *Teaching Secondary English*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. xiv+428.
Makes a distinguished contribution to newer methods of teaching English, with special emphasis on literature for social purposes, a modern view of linguistics, and the importance of mass media.
92. DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS. "Literature Guide for Use in Junior High Schools." Denver, Colorado: Public Schools, 1951. Pp. ii+120 (processed).
Presents a unified course in literature for junior high schools.
93. ELKIN, FREDERICK. "The Psychological Appeal of the Hollywood Western," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIV (October, 1950), 72-86.
Gives insights into reasons for popularity of cheap films and fiction.
94. EMBLER, WELLER. "Metaphor and Social Belief," *Etc.: A Review of General Semantics* (Chicago: 539 West North Avenue), VIII (Winter, 1951), 83-93.
Reviews the dangers of metaphor accepted uncritically as a symbol of general political truths.
95. *English in Common Learnings*. A Report of the Committee on Contributions of English to Common Learnings, Lou LaBrant, chairman. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1951. Pp. 24.
Distinguishes tool aspects of English from independent aspects and shows the importance of training for teaching both.
96. FEINBLOOM, IRVING. "Television: A Challenge," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (January, 1951), 5-11.
Furnishes results of a questionnaire on television habits of high-school students, with implications for teachers.
97. FELS, WILLIAM C. "The College Board English Composition Test: Present and Future," *Education*, LXXI (September, 1950), 4-10.
Settles the argument over what is tested in English in the Eastern College Board Examination.
98. GREENE, HARRY A. "English," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 383-96. Edited by Walter S. Monroe. New York: Macmillan Co., 1950 (revised).
Discusses language, grammar, and composition as expressional skills and notes studies in the teaching of these subjects.
99. GREGORY, MARGARET, and McLAUGHLIN, W. J. "Teaching the Newspaper in Junior High Schools," *English Journal*, XL (January, 1951), 23-28.
Offers practical help on teaching the newspaper.
100. HARTLEY, HELENE W. "Developing Personality through Books," *English Journal*, XL (April, 1951), 198-204.
Suggests ways of adapting literature to experiences of adolescents.
101. *Interpreting Language*. Research Bulletin of the National Conference on Re-

- search in English. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1951. Pp. 48.
- Reviews research in phases of language and reading closely related to problems of understanding.
102. JOHNSON, KENNETH O. "The Effect of Classroom Training upon Listening Comprehensions," *Journal of Communication*, I (May, 1951), 57-62.
- Presents evidence of the improvement of listening comprehension of 112 college Freshmen as a result of training.
103. JONES, R. STEWART. "A Procedure for the Appraisal of the Mechanics of Group Discussion," *Progressive Education*, XXVIII (January, 1951), 96-99.
- Describes use of recordings for checking and evaluating group discussion.
104. KITCHIN, AILEEN TRAVER. "The Language Belongs to Them," *English Journal*, XXXIX (September, 1950), 373-79.
- Analyzes processes of observing language and evaluating its variant forms.
105. LABRANT, LOU L. *We Teach English*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1951. Pp. 342.
- Discusses helpfully the nature and growth of language, its social implications in the world today, and how English should be taught to meet current needs.
106. LAIRD, CHARLTON (editor). *The World through Literature*. English Monograph No. 18 of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951. Pp. xviii+506.
- A symposium on using literature to promote understanding of the nations of the world, each essay by a noted authority from the country concerned.
107. "The Language of Business," *Fortune*, XLII (November, 1950), 113-17.
- Presents survey data on the problem of communication in business, with implications for basic courses in English.
108. MALLERY, DAVID. "Release: A Human Relations Approach to Writing," *English Journal*, XXXIX (October, 1950), 429-35.
- Shows how a discerning teacher developed sincerity in writing by helping pupils probe their own experiences.
109. MERSAND, JOSEPH. "Why Teach Listening?" *English Journal*, XL (May, 1951), 260-65.
- Deals with the importance of listening and methods of improving listening among high-school students.
110. MICHAELS, HERBERT S. "A Logical Approach to Composition," *College English*, XII (April, 1951), 390-93.
- Reveals a teacher at work to develop clear expression of clear thoughts.
111. MUNSON, AMELIA H. *An Ample Field*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1950. Pp. xii+122.
- A brilliant exposition of how a librarian guides adolescent reading, together with mention of many useful books.
112. NEUMAYER, ENGELBERT J. "Teaching Certain Understandings about Language," *English Journal*, XXXIX (November, 1950), 509-15.
- Illustrates by concrete devices newer methods of teaching language.
113. NEVILLE, MARK. "For Mortal Stakes," *English Journal*, XL (February, 1951), 72-79.
- Makes a plea for English as the foundation of the curriculum.
114. REDDING, W. CHARLES. "The Most Important Problems of College Courses

in Communication," *Journal of Communication*, I (May, 1951), 30-35.

Summarizes workshop discussions at the 1950 convention of the National Society for the Study of Communication.

115. ROBINSON, KARL F. *Teaching Speech in the Secondary School*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1951. Pp. 438.

Discusses the place of speech in secondary schools, the role of teacher and administrator, methods of testing and teaching, and the extra-curriculum activities.

116. ROBINSON, KARL F. "High School Speech Contests," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXV (January, 1951), 266-74.

Furnishes a detailed and generally favorable picture of the speech contests in secondary schools and their relation to the aims of education.

117. SEEGER, J. CONRAD. "Grammar and Usage—Some Current Thoughts," *School Review*, LVIII (November, 1950), 468-74.

Reviews the latest research in grammar and linguistics and suggests its bearing on classroom teaching.

118. STERNER, ALICE P. "A Course of Study in Radio and Television Appreciation," *Audio-visual Guide*, XVII (September, 1950), 38-42; (October, 1950), 23-38; (November, 1950), 31-36; (December, 1950), 5-8.

Describes in detail practical units in radio and television appreciation. Also available as reprint from Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., Maplewood, New Jersey.

119. *Using Periodicals*. A Report of the Committee on the Use of Magazines and Newspapers in the English Class, Ruth Mary Weeks, chairman. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1950. Pp. 114.

Contains all the important information available on teaching newspapers and magazines in high school.

120. WHEELER, PAUL MOWBRAY. "Comparing Poems on Like Topics," *English Journal*, XL (March, 1951), 154-61.

Gives concrete help on developing appreciation of poetry by comparing poems on the same theme.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES²

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Regular departments in periodicals, such as "Sight and Sound in Social Studies," have not been included in this list.

121. ANDERSON, HOWARD R. "Trends in Teaching Social Studies," *School and Community*, XXXVII (February, 1951), 68-70.

Lists ten trends, including greater emphasis on the functional use of facts, more stress on world affairs, and discussion of issues, to promote critical thinking.

122. ARNDT, CHRISTIAN O., and EVERETT, SAMUEL (editors). *Education for a World Society*. Eleventh Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1951. Pp. viii+274.

Analyzes the task and reviews, among other things, the contribution of inter-

² See also Item 306 (Osborne) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1951, number of the *School Review*, Item 703 (Edgar) and Item 705 (Fox) in the December, 1951, issue of the same journal, and Item 2 (Alberty) in the January, 1952, issue of the same journal; Item 392 (Klee) in the list appearing in the September, 1951, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, Item 524 (Jordan) and Item 531 (Sand) in the October, 1951, number of the same journal, and Item 725 (Ander) and Item 757 (Jones) in the December, 1951, issue of the same journal.

national camps and seminars, student and teacher exchanges, and the work of pioneering schools in many parts of the world.

123. *Better History Textbooks. UNESCO and Its Program, 1951-VI.* Paris: UNESCO, [n.d.].³ Pp. 30.

Reports on Brussels seminar of 1950 and its recommendations for improving history textbooks, especially in the area of international understanding.

124. BOLTON, FLOYD B. "Another Look at the American History Program," *Social Education*, XV (March, 1951), 109-10, 114.

Suggests methodological rather than content differentiation according to historical periods to distinguish three cycles of United States history-teaching.

125. BREAM, ROBERT A. "How Can the School Promote Citizenship Development in the Community?" *Educational Outlook*, XXV (March, 1951), 108-24.

Reviews the recent major co-operative projects in developing citizenship education and suggests how such a program may be developed in a community.

126. BURKHARDT, R. W. "The Soviet Union in American Textbooks," *Progressive Education*, XXVIII (October, 1950), 20-23.

Cites examples of omissions, inaccuracies, and other flaws in over-condensed textbook treatments of Russia.

127. CARPENTER, HELEN McCracken. "Teaching World History to Poor Readers," *Social Education*, XV (May, 1951), 223-25, 243.

Suggests that social-studies teachers teach more about less, take more time, extend experience through other means than

reading, and use as simple reading materials as possible.

128. CARR, EDWIN R. "Education for Life Adjustment through the Social Studies," *Education for Life Adjustment*, pp. 110-34. Edited by Harl R. Douglass. New York: Ronald Press, 1950.

Reviews needed emphases in a vital area through the social studies.

129. CARR, EDWIN R. *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers.* Bulletin No. 26 of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1951. Pp. vi+154.

An annotated and selective bibliography of important readings in the social sciences, in education, and in social-studies teaching. Supersedes the earlier *Guide* by Edgar B. Wesley.

130. COLLINGS, MILLER R. "Exploring Your Community: A Direct Experience Study," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLIV (November, 1950), 225-30.

Concludes that schools, churches, and clubs failed to give the young people who were studied adequate experience with community resources, especially activities of government.

131. COLLINGS, MILLER R., and DIMOND, STANLEY E. "Answers to the Public's Questions about Citizenship Education," *Nation's Schools*, XLVI (November, 1950), 42-44.

Reports findings of Detroit Citizenship Education Study, revealing, *inter alia*, "little evidence of the teaching of problem-solving or critical thinking."

132. "A Comparative Study of Curricula in History, Geography, and Social Studies." Paris: UNESCO, 1951. Pp. 116 (mimeographed).

Presents a tabular view of offerings in more than forty countries of the non-Communist

³ The United States sales agent for UNESCO and other United Nations publications is the Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York.

world and draws some modest conclusions therefrom.

133. *Conservation Education in American Schools*. Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1951. Pp. 528.

Describes good practices of, and programs in, conservation education and lists selected references on conservation education, audio-visual materials on conservation, and organizations and agencies concerned with the subject.

134. "Controversial Issues—Why and How?" *Educational Leadership*, VIII (March, 1951), 326-87.

A notable number, which includes a good statement on the general problem by Senator Hubert H. Humphrey; descriptions of the teaching of controversial issues; outline of a race-relations unit in a high school in Alabama; and criteria adopted in 1949 by the American Legion for evaluating instructional materials for such teaching.

135. COOK, LLOYD ALLEN. *Intergroup Relations in Teacher Education: An Analytical Study of Intergroup Education in Colleges and Schools in the United States*. College Study in Intergroup Relations, Vol. II. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951. Pp. xvi+272.

Completes the formal report "of the first comparative effort in the United States to improve teacher education in respect to intergroup relations."

136. COOPER, KENNETH S. "How Good Are American History Textbooks?" *Social Education*, XIV (December, 1950), 341-43.

Finds that history textbooks "are not bad" and "have been getting better," that they are up to date and factual and put some emphasis on building basic skills.

137. "Education for Work, Citizenship, and Leisure," *Review of Educational Research*, XX (October, 1950), 257-338.

Reviews research literature from April, 1947, through March, 1950, in social studies, intercultural education, and related fields.

138. EDWARDS, NEWTON. "Education as a Social Instrument," *School Review*, LIX (October, 1951), 394-402.

Shows the need for more balance of past, present, and future in American social education for a democratic society involved in revolutionary technological and demographic changes.

139. ENGLE, SHIRLEY H. "The Lack of Interest in Pressing Social Problems," *Progressive Education*, XXVIII (November, 1950), 49-52.

Maintains that high schools must be community-minded, obtain public backing for teaching controversial issues, make every teacher a teacher of contemporary affairs, and probe deeply into a few selected current problems.

140. FARLEY, EDGAR S., and OVERTON, HARVEY. "Improving Discussion as a Means of Improving Understanding," *School Review*, LIX (October, 1951), 403-9.

Reports an experiment, with a useful check list for the self-appraisal of the quality of discussion, in an eleventh-grade English-social-studies course.

141. FISHER, MARGUERITE J., and STARRATT, EDITH E. *Parties and Politics in the Local Community*. National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin No. 20. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1951 (revised). Pp. 144.

Analyzes usual content of the subject, suggests desirable outcomes of such study, provides learning activities, and tells teachers how to evaluate results and where to find pertinent materials. Summarized

- briefly by Merrill F. Hartshorn in the *NEA Journal* for March, 1951.
142. FURST, B. V. (editor). "Film Guide for Economic Education." New York: Film Research Associates, 1950. Pp. 24 (mimeographed).
Lists and annotates 135 films.
143. *Goals for Political Science*. Report of the Committee for the Advancement of Teaching, American Political Science Association. New York: William Sloane Associates, 1951. Pp. xxiv+320.
Reports valuable investigation of the teaching of government in colleges and gives some attention to the same field in high schools.
144. GROSS, RICHARD E. "Trends in the Teaching of U.S. History in the Senior High Schools of California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (May, 1951), 263-67.
Reports that teaching of United States history is largely "traditional" in content and methods.
145. GWINN, HERBERT D., and BRINEGAR, JOHN B. "Teaching Americanism in California Secondary Schools," *California Schools*, XXII (July, 1951), 263-81.
Analyzes objectives in "educating for Americanism" and lists leading textbooks used in California in teaching United States history and civics.
146. HAWLEY, CLAUDE E. "The Social Studies in General Education," *The Nature of Concepts*, pp. 87-102. Proceedings of the Stillwater Conference, June 6, 7, 8, and 9, 1950. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1950.
Reviews current work in the field and recommends a "national evaluation project" to show what "teaching the social studies [is] doing to our pupils."
147. *History in Secondary Schools*. Scottish Education Department Series. Edinburgh, Scotland: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1951. Pp. 28.
Suggests adaptations of history courses to several sorts of secondary schools and of secondary students, with particular emphasis on a balanced treatment of local, Scottish, British, and world history.
148. HUNT, ERLING M. "History in General Education," *Social Education*, XV (February, 1951), 64-68, 78-81.
Reviews developments in the past half-century of history and social studies in schools of the United States.
149. HUNT, MAURICE P. "Leading Group Discussion," *Social Education*, XV (February, 1951), 71-74.
Analyzes discursive and developmental forms of group discussion.
150. *Improving Economic Understanding in the Public Schools*. New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1950. Pp. 20.
Reports on the workshop movement of curriculum experts, economists, and teachers to stimulate teaching for economic literacy in the public schools.
151. JOHNSON, EARL S. "The Social Studies Teacher as Therapist," *Chicago Schools Journal*, XXXII (May-June, 1951), 190-95.
Believes that the job of the social-studies teacher is "to help youth come into possession of a body of *meaning* which is closer to reality than that which they possess."
152. KARSCH, ROBERT F. "The Teaching of American Government," *Social Education*, XV (January and February, 1951), 16-20, 56-58.
Suggests dynamic content and improved methods of teaching the "introductory" college course in American government.

153. KEHOE, RAY E., and STEPHENSON, ORLANDO. "Free Inquiry into Controversial Issues," *Clearing House*, XXV (October, 1950), 110-11.
Suggests a policy for the fair presentation of controversial issues in public school classrooms.
154. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Educating for Civic Leadership," *Social Studies*, XLII (March, 1951), 99-104.
Describes needed emphases in education for vital civic leadership. Stresses the need for balance, perspective, and depth.
155. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "The Use of Primary Sources in High-School World-History Classes," *The Councilor*, XII (April, 1951), 4-7. Chicago: Illinois Council for the Social Studies, Charles R. Monroe, editor (% Chicago Teachers College).
Describes how primary sources can be used for inspiration, for information, and for teaching how to think historically.
156. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Educating for Understanding a Divided World," *School Review*, LIX (October, 1951), 379-92.
Considers problems of unjustified pressures on the public schools, the teaching of the "American heritage," and teaching about international relations and communism.
157. LARKIN, MYRTLE S. "How To Use Oral Reports: Number 10, How To Do It Series of the National Council for the Social Studies," *Social Education*, XV (May, 1951), 239-43.
Supplies useful suggestions on choosing topics, scheduling reports, analyzing types of reports, and evaluating reports.
158. LAVES, WALTER H. C. "What Does the Citizen Need To Know about World Affairs?" *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, XXII (May, 1951), 115-20.
Sets forth a pattern of basic understandings for the teaching, in high schools, of international relations. Reprinted in *Social Education*, XV (October, 1951), 275-78.
159. MCCLURE, DOROTHY. *The Treatment of International Agencies of Co-operation in School History Textbooks in the United States*. Prepared for the United States National Commission for UNESCO. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1950. Pp. 108 (processed).
Points out the inadequacies in contemporary history-textbook approaches to the subject and suggests improvements. The findings on the basic understandings to be sought in such studies are well stated also in McClure's article, "International Agencies in History Textbooks" (*School Review*, LIX (May, 1951)), where she concludes that "information about international agencies should be selected and organized to develop specific understandings that have been chosen as appropriate."
160. MCKEE, C. W., and MOULTON, H. G. *A Survey of Economic Education*. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1951. Pp. viii+64.
Surveys economic education in American public high schools, in colleges, and through less formal approaches. Concludes that more time, better-prepared teachers, and required courses in high schools are needed. A condensed report of this survey appeared in *Fortune*, XLIV (July, 1951), 84-86, 122, 124, 126.
161. MOFFATT, MAURICE P. *Social Studies Instruction*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Pp. xvi+524.
Covers most of the topics usual to "methods" books.
162. OESTE, GEORGE I. (editor). *New Viewpoints in the Teaching of the Social Studies*. Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1949-1950, Vol. XLVII. Philadelphia: The Council (George I. Oeste,

% Germantown High School), 1951. Pp. xii+92.

Outstanding are these articles: Claude E. Hawley reviews the status of the social studies from the elementary school to college; James B. Ranck relates democratic attitudes to the social studies in general education; and L. P. Todd tells how to teach realistically about the UN.

163. "Our American Heritage: A Film Bibliography," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XLV (June, 1951), 209-15.

The Special Committee of the Audio-visual Board of the American Library Association lists and annotates more than 100 titles of relevant films.

164. PAYNE, JOHN C. (editor). *The Teaching of Contemporary Affairs*. Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1951. Pp. xviii+234.

The most recent survey of this area.

165. *Proceedings and Suggestions for the Formation of Social Studies in the Public Schools of Germany*. International Workshop on Social Studies (Heidelberg, 1950). Frankfurt on the Main, Germany: Office of Public Affairs, Education and Cultural Relations Division, Education Branch, Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany, 1951. Pp. 154.

Includes an interesting mélange of material—speeches, outlines of courses, and suggestions for means and methods of instruction—which indicate some American influence on West German social education.

166. RAYNER, S. A. *The Special Vocabulary of Civics*. A.C.E.R. Research Series, No. 65. Melbourne, Australia: Published for the Australian Council for Educational Research by Melbourne University Press, 1951. Pp. x+106.

A research study which suggests that Australian students leave school without adequate understanding of "the social terms essential for civic competency."

167. REDDEN, JOHN D., and RYAN, FRANCIS A. *Intercultural Education*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1951. Pp. xii+180.

Discusses the meaning and methods of intercultural education for a Christian democracy which "will indoctrinate and immunize against all Communist tactics, policies, and practices."

168. REID, SEERLEY. *102 Motion Pictures on Democracy*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 1. Pp. viii+52.

Annotates recommended 16mm sound films on the meaning and processes of democracy.

169. RIESMAN, DAVID. "Some Problems of a Course in 'Culture and Personality,'" *Journal of General Education*, V (January, 1951), 122-36.

Describes the second-year component of a three-year social-studies sequence in general education at the University of Chicago.

170. RUSSELL, WILLIAM F. "Citizenship Education Project," *Teachers College Record*, LII (November, 1950), 77-89.

Reviews early stages of a significant citizenship-education project. See also Dean Russell's "To Know Is Not Enough," *NEA Journal*, XL (March, 1951), 197-98.

171. SANDERS, JENNINGS B. "How the College Introductory Course in United States History Is Organized and Taught." United States Office of Education Circular No. 288, 1951. Pp. 20 (mimeographed).

Maintains that lectures, textbook-reading, and essay examinations are predominant and that visual means are most neglected.

172. SHAPIRO, HARRY H. "New Type Civic Laboratory: Philadelphia Teachers and Pupils Study Work of Citizens Drafting First Home Rule Charter in 250-Year History," *National Municipal Review*, XXXIX (November, 1950), 501-6.
- Describes how a local charter campaign sparked vital citizenship education through classroom discussion of issues and observation of the campaign.
173. SHELBY, H. H. "1950 Youth Government Day at Elgin, Illinois," *Social Studies*, XLII (January, 1951), 16-22.
- A down-to-earth description of a carefully planned project to make local government meaningful to high-school students.
174. SIGGELKOW, RICHARD A. *How To Use Recordings. How To Do It Series*, No. 8. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1951. Pp. 8.
- Analyzes problems in, and advantages of, using recordings; discusses the relative merits of several types of recording equipment; and gives a useful list of major distributors of educational recordings.
175. *Sixth-Form Citizens: An Inquiry of the Schools' Committee of the Association for Education in Citizenship into the Social Content of Sixth-Form Curricula*. London: Oxford University Press, 1950. Pp. xvi+288.
- This important work represents an attempt to discover, for the last years of English grammar schools, what schools are doing in education for citizenship.
176. "Social Studies," *Journal of Education* (London), LXXXII (November, 1950), 589-645.
- An interesting number, showing alleged American influence on British education, especially in furthering "decompartmentalization." Also replies to British geographers' characterization of the social studies as "an amorphous hotch-potch of geography, history, and civics."
177. SPIESEKE, ALICE W. "Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies, 1949-1950," *Social Education*, XIV (December, 1950), 359-61.
- Brings Bulletin 23 (bibliography of recent textbooks) of the National Council for the Social Studies up to date.
178. STARR, ISIDORE. "Recent Supreme Court Decisions," *Social Education*, XV (January, 1951), 13-15, 20; (February, 1951), 75-77, 81; (March, 1951), 117-20.
- Recent cases in the United States Supreme Court on racial discrimination, labor relations, and civil rights provide "leads" to teachers for vital materials and methods of studying controversial issues.
179. STODDART, CURWEN, and HESSON, CHARLES H. "The Psychocultural Approach to Social Science," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (June, 1951), 310-20, 344.
- Describes an interesting course in "personality and culture" for college Freshmen, which was conducted in small discussion groups.
180. TAYLOR, HORACE (editor). "The Teaching of Undergraduate Economics," *American Economic Review*, XL, Part II (December, 1950), 1-226.
- The Committee on the Undergraduate Teaching of Economics and the Training of Economists of the American Economic Association discusses these problems and states differing viewpoints on the proper relation of general social-science courses to the economics curriculum.
181. *The Teaching of History*. Report of the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1950. Pp. xvi+222.
- A report on current thinking about history-teaching in English "grammar" schools, interesting to Americans chiefly for its defense of a traditional history curriculum

- taught, often, by quite "modern" methods. The suggestions for the preparation and use of models and those on the "history room" are well in advance of most American thought and practice.
182. TODD, LEWIS PAUL. "The Teaching of Controversial Issues," *Pi Lambda Theta Journal*, XXIX (Spring, 1951), 138-40.
- Argues that discussion of controversial issues is the essence of democratic education, though certain limiting factors must be recognized.
183. *Towards World Understanding: Some Suggestions on Teaching History*. UNESCO/ED/90. Paris: UNESCO, 1951. Pp. 60+xxiv.
- Used as basis for discussion at the 1951 Sèvres Seminar on the Teaching of History; sets forth six principles for teaching history on the primary- and secondary-school levels.
184. "The Treatment of Controversial Issues in the Schools," *Social Education*, XV (May, 1951), 232-36.
- The Committee on Academic Freedom of the National Council for the Social Studies attacks the "blacklisting" of textbooks and suggests criteria for evaluation of teaching materials used in the study of current issues.
185. TROELSTRUP, ARCH W. "Consumer Problems in General Education," *Junior College Journal*, XXI (January, 1951), 283-88.
- Describes goals and content of Stephens College six-hour, two-semester course.
186. "UNESCO Seminars at Brussels and Montreal," *Social Education*, XV (April, 1951), 171-95.
- Teachers from all regions of the free world reveal wide differences in educational attitudes and conditions as they consider the improvement of history textbooks and the teaching of geography.
187. VIGANDER, HAAKON. *Mutual Revision of History Textbooks in the Nordic Countries*. UNESCO/Ed/78. Paris: UNESCO, 1950. Pp. iv+36.
- Tells how offensive statements were eliminated and a slight beginning made to achieve a more consistent Nordic point of view in history textbooks.
188. WILMANN, ERNST. *Geschichtsunterricht: Grundlegung seiner Methodik*. Stuttgart, Germany: Klett, 1949.
- Discusses four meanings of history, historical learning, and the methods of teaching history as influenced by the psychology of children and young people.
189. WOOD, HERBERT J. "The Far East in World History," *Social Education*, XV (April, 1951), 155-59, 162, 195.
- Shows that our "world-history" textbooks are not usually world histories and gives reasons why more attention should be given to the peoples and cultures of the Far East.

GEOGRAPHY

EDNA E. EISEN

Kent State University

190. BELCHER, WYATT W. "New Approaches to the Study of Urban Growth," *Social Education*, XV (October, 1951), 283-86.
- Explains four human factors—spheres of influence, nature and amount of capital available for investment, economic changes, and business leadership—which should be considered in understanding urban development.
191. BENGTSO, NELS A. "Petroleum in Relation to Current Problems," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (December, 1950), 362-64; L (March, 1951), 103-7.
- Presents data on petroleum production which could be helpful in a unit on economic geography.

192. CALEF, WESLEY. "Student Mapping of an Area of Multi-Story Buildings," *Journal of Geography*, L (September, 1951), 233-39.
Explains procedure used to acquaint students with the aims and methods of the field activities of geographers.
193. CRAMER, ROBERT E. "Learning through International Correspondence," *Journal of Geography*, L (October, 1951), 288-94.
Describes benefits derived from correspondence with foreign students.
194. HAAN, AUBREY. "Oceanography in General Education," *Journal of Geography*, L (October, 1951), 294-302.
Presents some basic generalizations about the oceans which, through school experiences including field trips, will help students to appreciate the importance of the ocean in the international scene.
195. HAMILTON, JAMES W. "An Instrument and Method of Teaching Contour Lines," *Journal of Geography*, L (September, 1951), 230-31.
Describes construction of a device to aid in visualizing the idea of contours.
196. IVES, RONALD L. "Puerto Peñasco, Sonora," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (December, 1950), 349-61.
Presents material of the concrete type needed in helping students understand the dynamic nature of the association of natural and cultural phenomena that characterize communities.
197. JUNGE, RUBY M. "Basic Geographic Learnings at Secondary School Levels," *Journal of Geography*, L (April, 1951), 158-64.
Reports the procedures used to arrive at a list of seventy-five geographic concepts and generalizations which are deemed to contribute directly to an understanding of world affairs and which were considered adapted to the maturity of high-school pupils.
198. KANDEL, I. L. "Now It Is Geography's Turn," *School and Society*, LXXIV (July 21, 1951), 42-43.
Comments on the *New York Times* geography tests and points out the neglect of geography in school systems between elementary-school and graduate level.
199. KNIFFEN, FRED. "Geography and the Past," *Journal of Geography*, L (March, 1951), 126-29.
Gives examples of materials available to help illuminate the past for the needs of geography.
200. LATHROP, H. O. "Distribution and Development of the Beef Cattle Industry of Florida," *Journal of Geography*, L (April, 1951), 133-44.
Presents material concerning a relatively new area important in the beef-cattle industry, which could contribute to a unit of study in economic geography.
201. LEMAIRE, MINNIE E. "Manioc," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (December, 1950), 376-85.
Presents a geographic account of manioc, mentioned in most geography books but generally given only passing notice.
202. LONG, HAROLD M. "Geography for What?" *Scholastic*, LIX (September 26, 1951), 8T.
Reviews letters commenting on the *New York Times* geography survey and points out that geography should be included in the curriculum, not merely for the mastery of facts for passing tests, but for the way in which such facts are used to achieve objectives of social education.
203. MEADOWS, PAUL. "The Geographic Analysis of the City," *Social Education*, XIV (December, 1950), 362-64.
Reviews contributions of some foreign and American geographers in developing a geographic study of cities.
204. PHILLIPS, M. OGDEN. "Realism in Teaching Economic Geography," *Jour-*

nal of Geography, L (January, 1951), 34-38.

Explains the need for stressing human factors as well as natural, in the selection, organization, and interpretation of facts so that important ideas may emerge.

205. RICHARDSON, BENJAMIN F., JR. "Geography in the Junior Colleges of the United States," *Journal of Geography*, L (September, 1951), 246-55.

Reports an investigation by questionnaire to determine the status of geography in the curriculums of the junior colleges.

206. ROUCEK, JOSEPH S. "The Geopolitics of the Aleutians," *Journal of Geography*, L (January, 1951), 24-29.

Presents material of the type needed in helping students apply geographic facts in understanding current affairs.

207. ROWE, JOHN L. "Economic Geography as General Education," *Balance Sheet*, XXXII (April, 1951), 353-54.

Suggests ways in which facts of economic geography may be made meaningful and contribute to alert citizenship and world understanding.

208. *A Selected Bibliography on Geographic Education for Curriculum Committees*. Professional Paper No. 12. Evanston, Illinois: National Council of Geography Teachers (University Hall, Northwestern University), 1951. Pp. viii+24.

Includes bibliographies of articles on the junior high school level and on the senior high school level published in the *Journal of Geography*, 1939-50.

209. STONE, KIRK H. "Alaskan Problems and Potentials," *Journal of Geography*, L (May, 1951), 177-89.

Presents material concerning the characteristics of Alaska which could be useful in a political geography unit.

210. WEINBERG, MEYER. "Geography and General Education: A Junior College

View," *Junior College Journal*, XXI (February, 1951), 341-43.

Outlines a course to develop the theme that geography is an important factor in helping us make our way through problems of world importance.

SCIENCE

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP
University of Chicago

211. ANGELL, G. W., and RASOR, W. W. "Next Steps in Evaluation," *Science Teacher*, XVII (December, 1950), 209-12, 241.

Reports an actual classroom situation in which evaluation was used as a part of the daily teaching-learning situation.

212. BURNETT, R. WILL. "The New and the Old in Science Teaching," *Science Education*, XXXV (February, 1951), 43-54.

Compares the older ideas of science education with the newer programs now advocated.

213. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "Some Practical Suggestions for the Teaching of Biology," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (February, 1951), 95-104.

Presents twelve theses for the teaching of biology.

214. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "The Teaching of General Science from the Teacher's Standpoint," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (April, 1951), 255-63.

Presents eight theses concerning the development and values of general science.

215. DUNNING, GORDON M. "Using the Laboratory To Develop Critical Thinking," *Science Teacher*, XVIII (March, 1951), 85-87.

Gives concrete examples of how to use the laboratory to develop critical thinking.

216. FOWLER, H. SEYMOUR. "Plot Studies in High School Biology," *School Science*

and *Mathematics*, LI (November, 1951), 649-56.

Presents a method of studying the environment through activities to be carried on in the environment itself.

217. JACOBSON, WILLARD L. "Science Education and the Development of Abilities To Cope with Problematic Life Situations," *Science Education*, XXXV (April, 1951), 156-59.

Discusses the problem of transfer from classroom to life situations.

218. JOHNSON, PHILIP G. *The Teaching of Science in Public High Schools*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 9. Pp. viii+48.

Presents statistics on enrolment in science classes in high schools.

219. JOHNSON, PHILIP G. "Today's Need for Better Science Education," *Science Education*, XXXIV (December, 1950), 310-17.

Presents a program for meeting society's needs for science education.

220. KRUGLAK, HAYM. "A Natural Science Class Accepts the Challenge of Philip Morris!" *Science Teacher*, XVIII (October, 1951), 206-7.

Describes an experiment carried on by a class to test the accuracy of the claims of an advertiser.

221. LAMPKIN, RICHARD H. "Scientific Inquiry for Science Teachers," *Science Education*, XXXV (February, 1951), 17-39.

Analyzes scientific attitude and scientific method and their relation to educational objectives.

222. LOTTICK, KENNETH V., and LEFILES, BETTYELLA. "We Teach for Tomorrow," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (November, 1951), 621-28.

Describes an experiment in teaching atomic energy in junior high school.

223. MILES, VADEN W. *Principles and Experiments for Courses of Integrated Physical Science*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1950. Pp. viii+430.

A list of experiments focused on an understanding of selected principles of physical science.

224. MOORE, FRED W. "Providing Apparatus and Equipment for Teaching High School Chemistry," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (November, 1951), 629-34.

Discusses methods of introducing pupils to laboratory work and presents a list of required apparatus.

225. OWENS, J. HAROLD. "The Ability To Recognize and Apply Scientific Principles in New Situations," *Science Education*, XXXV (October, 1951), 207-13.

Reports a study to determine the relation between ability to recognize scientific principles in test situations and ability to apply these principles to problematic situations.

226. "Physical Science Today," *Science Teacher*, XVIII (February, 1951), 13-21.

A symposium describing what is being done with physical science in eight high schools and summarizing the findings.

227. RICHARDSON, JOHN S., and CAHOON, G. P. *Methods and Materials for Teaching General and Physical Science*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. viii+486.

Supplies a variety of laboratory experiences for physical and general science.

228. TANNENBAUM, HAROLD E. "A New Approach to the Physical Sciences," *Science Teacher*, XVIII (November, 1951), 249-52.

Argues for teaching science in such a way that the interrelations between science and technology are stressed.

229. UPDIKE, GLENN H. "The Development of a Course in Physical Science,"

School Science and Mathematics, LI (February, 1951), 141-47.

Outlines a course in physical science for the high school.

230. VAN WAYNEN, MARTINUS. "Mock-ups in Teaching Science," *Science Teacher*, XVIII (November, 1951), 244-46.

Illustrates various types of mock-ups and explains how they may be made.

231. VOGEL, LOUIS F. "A Spot-Check Evaluation Scale for High School Science Textbooks," *Science Teacher*, XVIII (March, 1951), 70-72.

Presents a check list that can be used to evaluate science textbooks.

232. WEAVER, ELBERT C. "What the Ideal Chemistry Course Should Be," *Science Teacher*, XVIII (November, 1951), 240-43, 266.

Suggests many devices to make a chemistry course interesting.

MATHEMATICS

GEORGE E. HAWKINS

Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois

233. ADAMS, L. J., and BELL, CLIFFORD. "Instalment Buying," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (December, 1950), 388-91.

Discusses assumptions underlying different formulas used in computing interest rates paid in instalment buying.

234. ARCHER, ALLENE. "Teaching Plane Geometry to Mentally, Physically, and Emotionally Handicapped Pupils," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (March, 1951), 183-85.

Describes methods used in geometry with slow-learning pupils.

235. BAUER, MARIE L. "Projects for Plane Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (April, 1951), 235-39.

Lists seventy-two topics appropriate for special projects in geometry.

236. BETZ, WILLIAM. "Five Decades of Mathematical Reform: Evaluation and

Challenge," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (December, 1950), 377-87.

Traces changing emphases in mathematics teaching and outlines current status.

237. BRACE, WILLIAM S. "Secondary School Mathematics in Great Britain and the United States," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (October, 1951), 385-91, 394.

An exchange teacher from England contrasts the teaching of mathematics in England and in the United States.

238. BRESLICH, E. R. "Importance of Mathematics in General Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (January, 1951), 1-6.

Discusses values to be derived from the study of mathematics, with particular emphasis on cultural and disciplinary values.

239. BRESLICH, E. R. "How Movements of Improvement Have Affected Present Day Teaching of Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (February, 1951), 131-41.

Reviews important movements in mathematics-teaching during the past fifty years and points out the effects on certain practices.

240. BURR, IRVING W. "What Principles and Applications of Statistics Should Be Taught in High School and Junior College?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (January, 1951), 10-12.

Makes suggestions for developing certain concepts of statistics.

241. BUTLER, CHARLES H., and WREN, F. LYNWOOD. *The Teaching of Secondary Mathematics*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951 (second edition). Pp. xiv+550.

Covers historical and philosophical background; instructional, supervisory, and curriculum problems; and detailed study of the teaching of certain topics.

242. FEHR, HOWARD F. *Secondary Mathematics: A Functional Approach for Teachers*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1951. Pp. xii+432.

- Presents certain professionalized subject matter intended to broaden and deepen the teacher's knowledge of the mathematics that he teaches.
243. GAGER, WILLIAM A. "Functional Mathematics—Grades Seven through Twelve," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (May, 1951), 297-301.
Describes a course of study proposed by a group of Florida teachers.
244. GOINS, WILLIAM F., JR. "Putting More Meaning in the Teaching of Measurement," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (December, 1950), 745-49.
Gives examples of problems to be substituted for typical textbook problems.
245. HABEL, E. A. "An Experiment in the Diagnosis and Remedy of Errors of College Freshmen in Arithmetic and Radicals," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (February, 1951), 105-13.
Reports findings from a diagnostic test in arithmetic showing difficulties prevalent among college students.
246. KRAMER, EDNA E. *The Main Stream of Mathematics*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1951. Pp. xii+322.
Provides a popular exposition of mathematical concepts that are important in the world today, along with considerable history of the subject.
247. LEONHARDY, ADELE. "The Mathematics Used in the Biological and the Physical Science Areas in a College Program of General Education," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (April, 1951), 265-74.
Summarizes a study of the mathematics needed for understanding biological and physical science courses as indicated by examination of textbooks.
248. LLOYD, DANIEL B. "Mathematically Trained Personnel Needed in the Government Service," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (May, 1951), 292-96.
Describes need for mathematics in many jobs in the federal government.
249. MACDUFFEE, C. C. "Linear Equations without Determinants," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (April, 1951), 233-34.
Illustrates a method, not in high-school textbooks, of solving linear equations.
250. MILLER, NORMAN. "What Permanent Values Have Courses in Mathematics for Students Who Will Make No Professional Use of Them?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (November, 1951), 449-54.
Discusses four permanent values resulting from study of mathematics apart from specific content remembered.
251. PEAK, PHILIP. "What Contributions to Mathematics Instruction Can We Expect in the Last One Half of the Twentieth Century?" *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (March, 1951), 171-81.
Discusses major trends on the horizon in the teaching of mathematics.
252. PINGRY, ROBERT E. "Critical Thinking—What Is It?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (November, 1951), 466-70.
Discusses interpretations of the phrase "critical thinking" and shows the need for stating specific outcomes desired.
253. PRICE, G. BAILEY. "A Mathematics Program for the Able," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (October, 1951), 369-76.
Makes suggestions regarding the program for training gifted research workers in mathematics.
254. ROSSKOPF, MYRON F. "A Five Year Program of Preparation for Mathematics Teachers," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (April, 1951), 225-29.
Describes a program in teacher training initiated by Syracuse University.
255. SAWIN, E. I. "Motivation in Mathematics: Its Theoretical Basis, Measurement, and Relationships with Other Factors," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (November, 1951), 471-78.
Discusses construction of a test for measuring motivation in mathematics.

256. SIMS, WELDON, and OLIVER, ALBERT, JR. "The Laboratory Approach to Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (November, 1950), 621-27.
Discusses importance of equipment and of opportunities for pupils to experiment.
257. SUELTZ, BEN A. "Mathematical Understandings and Judgments Retained by College Freshmen," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (January, 1951), 13-19.
Reports results of testing understanding and judgment of college students on mathematical topics studied in junior high school.
258. VAN ENGEN, H. "On Understanding Mathematical Methods," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (December, 1950), 397-402.
Discusses the place of postulates in logical proof and the implications in teaching elementary algebra.
259. WHETSTONE, GEORGE A. "High School Mathematics in College Engineering," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (December, 1950), 725-30.
Gives applications from engineering which may be used for motivation in high-school mathematics classes.
260. WREN, F. LYNWOOD. "What about the Structure of the Mathematics Curriculum?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (March, 1951), 161-69.
Discusses the need for authoritative answers to some of the questions relating to the arrangement and treatment of the subject matter of mathematics.
261. ALTENHEIN, MARGARETE RECKLING. "The Relationship of Latin to Achievement in German," *School and Society*, LXXII (November 18, 1950), 326-29.
⁴ See also Item 653 (Rockwell) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1950, number of the *School Review*.
Finds achievement in German greater for those with Latin backgrounds.
262. ANGIOLILLO, PAUL F. "The Teacher-training Course in Foreign Languages," *French Review*, XXIV (January, 1951), 248-52.
Suggests methods for revitalizing teacher-training courses in modern languages.
263. BERGEL, KURT. "We Need More Systematic Training for Teachers of German," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (May, 1951), 151-53.
Includes theory of modern-language instruction; methods of teaching German; textbooks, readers, study aids in a suggested course for future teachers.
264. BERNARD, WALTER. "Psychological Principles of Language Learning and the Bilingual Reading Method," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (February, 1951), 87-96.
Advocates methods using bilingual texts as the best system for attaining the objectives of language-study.
265. BIRKMAIER, EMMA MARIE. "Talking with Our Neighbors," *NEA Journal*, XXXIX (November, 1950), 578-80.
Describes the influence of foreign affairs on foreign-language teaching.
266. BISTER, ADA KLETT. "Practicing the Inverted Order," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (May, 1951), 185-88.
Demonstrates how inverted order can be learned through the use of questions with varied emphases.
267. BLEZNICK, DONALD W. "Conversational Techniques in First-Year Language Courses," *Hispania*, XXXIII (November, 1950), 355-56.
Considers conversational activity one of the best means of motivating students and gives examples of how these activities can be used.
268. BULGER, CHARLES. "On Teaching Noun and Adjective Inflection," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (March, 1951), 114-16.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE⁴

FRANCIS F. POWERS

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261. ALTENHEIN, MARGARETE RECKLING. "The Relationship of Latin to Achievement in German," *School and Society*, LXXII (November 18, 1950), 326-29.

⁴ See also Item 653 (Rockwell) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1950, number of the *School Review*.

- Suggests preliminary presentation of noun and adjective inflection based on the function of the endings to indicate case, gender, and number.
269. BULL, WILLIAM E. "Language Teaching Investigated," *Classical Journal*, XLVI (November, 1950), 90-92.
Reviews two recent books on second-language teaching and learning.
270. BURNS, D. G. "An Investigation into the Extent of First-Year Vocabulary in French in Boys' Grammar Schools," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXI, Part 1 (February, 1951), 36-44.
Attempts to determine actual achievement in vocabulary during the first year of French study.
271. COOPER, VIRGINIA DODD. "Is This the Answer?" *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (April, 1951), 292-96.
Demonstrates how grammar can be taught by reason rather than rules.
272. DELAKAS, DANIEL. "French Popular Songs and the Study of Grammar," *French Review*, XXIV (December, 1950), 149-53.
Gives examples of how French popular songs may be used in teaching grammar and tells where records may be obtained.
273. DELANO, RICHARD H. "Notes on the Choice of Equipment for a Recording and Listening Program," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (March, 1951), 88-92.
Sets up criteria for selecting equipment for a recording and listening program.
274. DUNCAN, MAUDE HELEN. "The French Verb: Aids toward Mastery," *French Review*, XXV (October, 1951), 31-36.
Describes techniques for helping teachers and pupils understand French verbs.
275. FOSTER, CLARKE L. "The Use and Abuse of Language Teaching," *School and Society*, LXXIII (April 7, 1951), 209-12.
Analyzes some of the uses, abuses, and trends in language-teaching.
276. FRAUENFELDER, WILLIAM. "Radio as a Teaching Device in German," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (January, 1951), 32-41.
Shows how a microphone can be used as a stimulating and motivating force in language classes and includes a radio script written by students.
277. FURNESS, EDNA L. "The Future of Foreign Languages in the Secondary Curriculum," *School and Society*, LXXIII (January 13, 1951), 21-22.
Expresses belief that foreign languages can make an effective contribution to the curriculum if properly placed and properly taught.
278. GIDUZ, HUGO. "Some Problems of the French Teacher," *French Review*, XXIV (January, 1951), 237-43.
Examines problems of teaching pronunciation and grammar and stimulating students.
279. GRACE, ALONZO G. "The Study of Foreign Language," *School Review*, LVIII (November, 1950), 441-42.
Offers suggestions for reviving interest and effort in the field of foreign languages.
280. GRIFFIN, M. H. "A Letter to Classicists," *Classical Journal*, XLVI (May, 1951), 397-404.
Discusses present-day need for treating language as a skill and an art and not as a science.
281. HIEBLE, JACOB. "The Problem of Vocabulary in Our Reading and Conversation Courses," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (March, 1951), 224-25.
Describes techniques useful in acquiring vocabulary strength.
282. JENSEN, WINIFRED. "There's Profit in Pleasure," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (April, 1951), 319-21.
Confirms by a poll of language classes that personal satisfaction is the major factor in continuing foreign-language study.

283. KAWCZYNSKI, ANTHONY S. "The Two Psychological Types of Language Students," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (February, 1951), 113-18.
Analyzes how different types of students react to "old" and "new" types of language-teaching.
284. KIRSNER, ROBERT. "Let's Do Away with Idioms," *Hispania*, XXXIV (February, 1951), 87-88.
Proposes that students be taught to meet problems of non-logical sayings in the same manner in which these are met in the native tongue.
285. KOENIG, V. FREDERIC, and EMGARTH, ANNETTE. "The Modern Language Teacher and the Community," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (October, 1951), 481-84.
Suggests techniques to use in selling foreign languages to the community.
286. LEFANT, JOAN BURNS. "Present the Subjunctive Early and See How Students' Themes Improve!" *Hispania*, XXXIII (November, 1950), 350-53.
Describes techniques and advantages of presenting the subjunctive early in the course of study.
287. LEWIS, H. MICHAEL. "Some Notes on the Subjunctive," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (May, 1951), 376-81.
Emphasizes the value of meaning in the study of the subjunctive.
288. MARONPOT, RAYMOND P. "Teaching and Testing Vocabulary on a One-Language Basis," *Hispania*, XXXIV (August, 1951), 280-82.
Lists techniques for teaching vocabulary on a one-language basis. Includes a sample vocabulary test.
289. MEIDEN, WALTER. "The Résumé Composition," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (February, 1951), 104-12.
Explains how daily blackboard composition can be used in foreign-language teaching.
290. MORRIS, GERALD E. "Languages Can Be Fun," *High School Journal*, XXXIII (November, 1950), 201-4.
Suggests ways to arouse interest in language study.
291. MUELLER, WERNER A. "The Teaching of the German Verb Order," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (May, 1951), 177-84.
Presents an outline of the essentials of German verb order.
292. MYRON, HERBERT B., JR. "Languages, Literatures, and General Education," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (May, 1951), 364-69.
Offers suggestions for making foreign languages and literatures an integral part of the general-education program.
293. ORLOW, PAUL F. "Basic Principles of Teaching Foreign Pronunciation," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (May, 1951), 387-90.
Discusses the following topics: starting points, methods, steps of teaching, transcription.
294. ORNSTEIN, JACOB. "A Decade of Russian Teaching: Notes on Methodology and Textbooks," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (April, 1951), 263-79.
Includes a selected bibliography of methodological articles and reviews of beginning textbooks, readers, conversation books, and scientific textbooks.
295. PETERS, MARY OLGA. "Report of an Experiment in the Teaching of Beginners' French," *Teachers College Journal*, XXII (November, 1950), 26, 32.
Reports an experiment conducted to determine effectiveness of laboratory periods.
296. PLANT, RICHARD. "'Blocked' Voices," *New York Times Magazine* (January 21, 1951), 14.
Presents reasons for linguistic shortcomings of Americans.
297. POLITZER, ROBERT L. "Linguistics and the Elementary Language Course,"

- Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (April, 1951), 314-18.
- Lists results of study of linguistics and discusses useful topics.
298. PRINGLE, KATHARINE, and PRINGLE, HENRY F. "Où Est the Pen of Votre Grandpère?" *Nation's Business*, XXXIX (March, 1951), 34-36.
- Describes techniques used in private language schools.
299. RAYMOND, JOSEPH. "A Controlled Association Exercise in Spanish," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (April, 1951), 280-91.
- Gives examples of controlled-association exercises and suggestions for preparing other exercises of this type.
300. ROBINOVE, MURIEL NETZORG. "French Unlimited," *French Review*, XXIV (April, 1951), 426-33.
- Recommends use of both direct and indirect pressure to convince administrators and students of values of French study.
301. SALTSMAN, NATALIE ANTOINETTE. "Spoken French: Natural or Unnatural?" *French Review*, XXIV (May, 1951), 498-500.
- Describes how grammatical memory of second-year students may be refreshed through class participation in a study of French geography.
302. SÁNCHEZ, JOSÉ. "Linguafilms: An Appeal and a Proposal," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (November, 1950), 545-52.
- Discusses the value and use of language films.
303. SHEROVER, MAX. "Bring Language Teaching to Life," *Journal of Education*, CXXXIV (January, 1951), 8-10.
- Examines obstacles to improvement, principles of teaching, audio learning, passive reception, use of neuro-linguistic mechanisms, functional relationships, and earlier start of language-teaching.
304. SIMONINI, R. C., JR. "The Genesis of Modern Foreign Language Teaching," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (March, 1951), 179-86.
- Traces the genesis of modern-language teaching back to the English Renaissance.
305. THARP, JAMES B., and OTHERS (compilers). "Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology for 1949," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (January, 1951), 53-70.
- Contains references to materials in the areas, among many others, of aims and objectives; methods of teaching; conversation, pronunciation; surveys; curriculum planning, composition, administration; European relations; audio-visual aids; general and auxiliary language; grammar; Latin-American relations; psychology of learning, techniques of instruction; realia, cultures, clubs, socialization, activities; teacher qualifications and training; evaluation; vocabulary.
306. TOIIVER, HAZEL M. "Latin: Real Aims vs. Doubtful Trimmings," *Clearing House*, XXV (November, 1950), 170-72.
- Emphasizes the twofold task of Latin-teaching: to teach the language and to present Roman character and culture.
307. WALLIS, ETHEL. "Intonational Stress Patterns of Contemporary Spanish," *Hispania*, XXXIV (May, 1951), 143-47.
- Presents the minimum basic intonational patterns for the early stages of teaching.
308. WHITE, EMILIE MARGARET. "New Paths to Old Goals," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (May, 1951), 331-39.
- Advocates the aural-oral approach in accomplishing the four-fold aim of language-teaching: speaking and understanding, reading and writing.
309. WOOLSEY, A. WALLACE. "One Approach to the Subjunctive," *Hispania*, XXXIV (February, 1951), 88-89.
- Describes a step-by-step approach to study of the subjunctive.

310. ZELDNER, MAX. "Foreign-Language Articulation between the Junior and Senior High Schools," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (May, 1951), 46-49.

Lists procedures for the improvement of articulation between junior and senior high school study.

FILMS

KENNETH D. NORBERG

University of Chicago

THE FOLLOWING FILMS have been arranged in groups according to subject. All the films listed are 16mm, sound films, and all are 1951 productions.

ENGLISH⁵

311. *Curtain Time*. 28 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Portrays an actual amateur group preparing a performance of a comedy. Shows ways in which producer and cast meet problems of casting, directing, rehearsals, costumes, etc.

SOCIAL STUDIES

312. *Atomic Alert*. 16 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Explains for children the effects of an atomic-bomb explosion and demonstrates protective measures to be taken.

313. BUILDERS OF AMERICA SERIES. Each film is 22 minutes in length, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films. Dramatizations of key episodes in the lives of some great men and women.

Recent titles are *Eli Whitney*, *Horace Mann*, *Abraham Lincoln*, *Andrew Carnegie*, *Booker T. Washington*, *Susan B. Anthony*.

⁵See also Items 556 and 558 in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1951, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

314. *The Challenge*. 30 minutes, black and white. New York: March of Time Forum Films.

Assigned to do a series of articles on the report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights, a photographer-writer team interview religious, business, and labor leaders for their views and observe various civil-rights programs in action.

315. *Fate of a Child*. 17 minutes, black and white. New York: Films and Visual Information Division, United Nations.

The death of a child is used to dramatize conditions prevailing in an underdeveloped area and to introduce the work of "Technical Assistance"—the program adopted by the United Nations to help the economic development of such areas.

316. *The Federal Government*. 13 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films.

Shows the plan of organization of our national government. Describes the three-fold division of responsibility, reasons for the division, and problems that arise from the existence of many quasi-legislative and quasi-judicial agencies.

317. *Functions of a City*. 11 minutes, black and white. Oakland, California: Progressive Pictures.

Illustrates how the people of a city, by organizing a municipal corporation, provide for public needs, such as water, light, garbage and sewage disposal.

318. *John Marshall*. 20 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Reveals predisposing experiences of Marshall's boyhood and traces his career and the developments which led to his appointment as chief justice of the Supreme Court.

319. *Our Inheritance from the Past*. 10 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films.

Seeing the contributions of the past to our modern life should result in better understanding of historic advances.

320. *What Price Government?* 20 minutes, black and white. New York: Citizens Commission for the Hoover Report.

Gives an intimate sightseeing tour of the many government departments, bureaus, and agencies in Washington, revealing obsolete equipment in use, the tangle of red tape, the overlapping and duplication.

321. *World Trade for Better Living.* 16 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Describes major features of international trade, indicates conditions which have led to restrictions on trade, and discusses solutions for major problems.

GEOGRAPHY⁶

322. *British Isles: Land and People.* 10 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films.

Shows how the people of the British Isles have made use of their limited space and resources and have built a world center of shipping and trade.

323. *Family Portrait.* 25 minutes, black and white. New York: British Information Services.

A poetic over-all picture of the achievements of a nation, highlighted by the Festival of Britain in 1951.

324. *From the Alps to the Adriatic.* 18 minutes, black and white. New York: Yugoslav Information Center.

The story of the Yugoslav Northwest. Shows the life of the people and the ways in which they make their living.

325. *Hong Kong.* 15 minutes, black and white. New York: British Information Services.

A view of the colony of Hong Kong, both from within and in relation to Far Eastern problems.

⁶ See also Items 570 and 579 in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1951, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

SCIENCE

326. *Great Winds.* 10 minutes, black and white or color. New York: United World Films, Inc.

Reviews principles of circulation of air, including influences of land and sea areas and seasonal changes that affect distribution of pressure and winds.

327. *Heredity and Environment.* 10 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films.

Visual examples are shown of heredity and environment at work. Gives an overview of cultural inheritances, genetics, and environmental influences.

328. *The Infinite Universe.* 10 minutes, black and white. New York: Almanac Films, Inc.

Shows some of the vast galaxies and distant stars of the universe and tries to reduce space-time concepts to understandable dimensions.

329. *Lenses.* 10 minutes, black and white. New York: United World Films, Inc.

Shows how light is refracted by diverging and converging lenses. Pictures use of the lens in the camera, the microscope, and the telescope.

330. *Solar System.* 10 minutes, black and white. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films.

Presents names of the planets, their relative sizes, distances from the sun, and the forces at work in the solar system.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

331. *Why Study Latin?* 11 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films.

Covers the values of Latin to an understanding of history, an appreciation of literature, and a mastering of English. Points out the practical usefulness of Latin to many professions.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

MORTON DEUTSCH and MARY EVANS COLLINS, *Interracial Housing: A Psychological Evaluation of a Social Experiment*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951. Pp. xvi+174. \$3.00.

Most research into Negro-white relations is concerned with whites who have had little contact with Negroes. Deutsch and Collins' brief study is refreshingly different. It compares Negro-white relations in four housing projects: two *biracial, segregated* projects in Newark, where whites and Negroes live in separate buildings and areas, and two *inter-racial, integrated* projects in New York City, in which the two races live in the same buildings.

The two writers interviewed about 125 tenants in each project and found that in the interracial projects, where there was constant face-to-face contact, Negro stereotypes held by the whites soon broke down, and neighborly, friendly relationships developed. In the biracial projects, Negroes and whites tended to stay in their respective areas, and relatively little social contact resulted. Furthermore, the integrated project developed a more favorable atmosphere toward interracial contacts, whereas the biracial project encouraged continued segregation. The integrated project was also a more closely knit community; whites seemed to have more social contacts, with other whites as well as with Negroes, than in the biracial project. In the integrated project, there was little of the tension that was found in the biracial project, where segregation restrained social life and hung over the community like the sword over Damocles.

The two authors do an honest, painstakingly

methodical job of showing that it is the occupancy pattern, rather than differences between tenants, that is primarily responsible for the difference in social relations in the two types of projects. Thus, the study makes an important contribution to the only recently discovered influence of physical proximity (and other architectural and planning features) on the social life of a community.

Perhaps the most dramatic part of the book is a letter from the Newark Housing Authority, announcing that henceforth all its projects will be integrated:

In large measure, this change in fundamental policy reflects the impact of the study. . . .

Perhaps [the study's] most important consequence was its usefulness to . . . community groups concerned with intergroup relations and civil rights. . . . To such groups the study was an invaluable tool in creating the atmosphere which made it possible for the housing authority to adopt and execute a policy of nonsegregation [p. 130].

Since the book has been so successful in Newark, it should be presented to a wider audience, preferably in a less academic "research-report" style. Its conclusions warrant further publicity.

This study should be of special interest to teachers with interracial classes. Classes which provide the opportunity for socializing among students resemble the situation found in the housing projects and can be interracial or biracial. No doubt there are teachers who can duplicate or add to the conclusions of the study.

Good as it is, this study is only a beginning. It points out *what* happens when Ne-

groes and whites live as neighbors. What is needed now is a careful study of *how* this happens in new projects and in established communities—how Negroes and whites move in, how they get to know each other, how and when stereotypes break down, and who the people are that initiate and lead the march across the color lines.

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An Experience in Health Education. Battle Creek, Michigan: W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 1950. Pp. x+176.

In the fall of 1942, in an effort to help relieve a dire shortage of nurses, a high school in Battle Creek, Michigan, organized a class to teach its girls to serve as nurses' aides. Through the efforts of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction, financial assistance was obtained from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and in the fall of 1943 such a course was offered in 150 high schools of the state.

From this beginning as a "Community Health Service Project" in one state, the idea spread to twenty-four states, in which three-year programs were instituted with Kellogg Foundation assistance and under the sponsorship of the various state departments of education and health. At the end of these three-year programs, five states were selected for an extended program with emphasis upon the training of teachers in health education. *An Experience in Health Education* is an analytical report of the extensive and intensive activities within these several state programs, written by Dr. Frank W. Thomas, retired president of Fresno State College, Fresno, California. His clear descriptions of specific difficulties encountered and successes achieved, his generous use of photographs of group activity, as well as his able appraisal of the educational values of the total project

should pique the professional interest of all educators.

In the conducting of these several state-sponsored health projects, it was recognized that the understandings, attitudes, and decisions of the administrator are vital to the smooth running of a school. Particularly is this true in connection with the introduction of functional programs of health education. Many workshops were held to gain the interest and support of administrators as well as to assist teachers and community health leaders properly to plan and execute forward-looking health programs. It was found that, if only one person (staff member or administrator) was "sold" on the advantages of the new approach, the program was not successful. Pertinent experiences in connection with administrative procedures used at state, local, and community levels are realistically discussed.

The health council is shown to be not only desirable but most effective in achieving co-operative planning and action. Councils of various sizes were formed in all the states at all levels of school and community responsibility. Most important requisites to successful functioning of a council were found to be careful planning, resourceful leaders, opportunities for member participation, a worthwhile and continuing program, attack on definite problems with tangible results accruing therefrom, and the addition of new members, from time to time, to obtain fresh ideas and professional advice. Specific descriptions of council organization and work should prove helpful to schools and communities interested in improving health programs.

The functional approach to health education—learning through doing—was found to be of much greater interest to children than was the traditional learning *about* something. Specific instruction was not eliminated, however, and it was found that improvement of environmental health conditions and tangible health services gave point to both direct and incidental instruction. The

following are typical projects accepted by children: surveying playgrounds, lighting, heating, ventilation, water supplies, and sanitary conditions of school and community; conducting fire-prevention campaigns; assisting in vision tests, immunization programs, and other aspects of the school health service; planning lunchroom menus; conducting "clean-up" campaigns; recommending improvements in environmental conditions, such as properly functioning drinking fountains, elimination of safety hazards, and cleaning and painting. In this study it was invariably found that increased interest and activity on the part of the school and the interaction between it and the community resulted in increased interest, co-operation, and activity in the community itself.

This widespread project resulted in improved over-all health programs in many schools and communities, in closer co-ordination of effort at state and local levels, in better preparation of future teachers, as well as in the in-service education of present teachers, and in the attainment of significant values through direct experiences. There are many reasons for the belief that results of this School-Community Health Project, as it later came to be called, will permanently and positively influence educational practices throughout our country, with consequent better health for all.

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EDWIN POWERS and HELEN WITMER, *An Experiment in the Prevention of Delinquency*. The Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951. Pp. xlv+650. \$6.00.

Powers and Witmer's new volume summarizes and evaluates original research in the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study, which was initiated and supported by the late Dr.

Richard Clarke Cabot. This experimental study aimed to test the hypothesis that delinquent behavior can be prevented by using the counseling method to establish early a sustained and friendly ego-ideal relationship for boys in trouble. Case selections for this study began in December, 1937, and the last subject was selected by April, 1939. The experimental phase of the study ran for eight years, closing in 1945. The median length of counseling treatment was about five years per subject.

This volume is not co-authored in the usual style of integrated writing of collaborators. In the first half, Powers, who served at one time or another as counselor, research assistant, and director of the study, presents a comprehensive report of the history, setting, procedures, and results of the experiments. The second half of the book presents an independent evaluation of the experiment by Helen Witmer, who had available Powers' report, together with original data of the study. Witmer presents her critique and evaluation of the total study as an unbiased outsider, brought in for this specific purpose after the study had been terminated. More investigations and experiments in the field of social sciences would do well to imitate this type of joint reporting.

The design of the study called for two matched groups of 325 boys each. Both groups had the same number of "problem boys," who had been judged by teachers and by a team of experts to be "predelinquent." The experimental subjects were favored with all the assistance and resources that could be marshaled by a friendly, if not always trained, counselor. The control subjects received no such continued aid except what might have come to them through the usual community channels.

The scientific nature of the study leaves much to be desired, particularly with respect to the adequacy of the controls and the isolation of the experimental factor. The experimental variable was neither well defined nor well preserved. Generally, it encompassed

any help or assistance, usually of a directive nature, which the counselor thought of and was able to apply by "moral suasion." Also, the lack of continuity in counselor services was much in evidence throughout the experiment. Nineteen counselors were employed, with a median length of service of three years. Two of the counselors remained with the study from start to finish. In addition, the shrinkage of the cases and the difficulty in maintaining contacts, particularly during the war years, placed such a great strain on the experimental design as to reduce seriously the precision in the study.

Final evaluation of the experiment based on four criteria—a battery of attitude scales and personality instruments, delinquency status, ratings of adjustment, and case analyses—shows little or no significant difference between the counseled and the noncounseled group. Thus the hypothesis that delinquency can be prevented through friendly counselor resources seems to be rejected. This conclusion, of course, must be limited to the type of counseling service rendered by the relatively untrained but friendly personnel.

Too much of the treatment of the data and the interpretive argument takes on the nature of a strained effort to eke out a modicum of results tending to prove that the sponsor of the study had not been "barking up the wrong tree." While Witmer's analysis is generally unbiased and insightful, even she appears to yield to the pressures of the sponsor's ghost in an attempt to analyze the data in some manner to yield at least one positive result. Specific reference is made to the specialized handling of the cases of one of the nineteen counselors who had been with the study for its duration and who was said to personify, in her counseling practices, the theory and the spirit of the sponsor. This special set of cases is used to indicate that more good than harm was accomplished with the guided group through this study-treatment method.

The experiment is not altogether without valuable contributions to the research literature, but most of these are to be found in the

by-products of the study rather than in the main issue. For example, the study raises the pertinent question of the potential values inherent in a completely directive approach to the guidance process and, at the same time, sheds light on the kinds of counseling activities that can be carried on successfully by persons of varied and somewhat limited experience and training; some indications are also provided concerning the type of misbehaving boy who might profitably be aided by the kind of study-treatment aids used in this experiment; some helpful insights are furnished concerning potentially harmful effects of the use of well-intentioned counselors with certain types of subjects; and the study reminds us that many children somehow seem to work out their own problems without help or with minimal assistance from the usual youth-serving agencies in the community.

The over-all conclusion appears to be (school counselors, please note) that no one form of guidance service exists by which all manner of boys can be helped to better social adjustment. The generally negative results of this extended experiment are somewhat disappointing, but the vast amount of time, money, and energy spent in this study may be justified by some future savings in time, money, and energy of other sponsors and researchers.

W. C. KVARACEUS

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J. B. NASH, FRANCIS J. MOENCH, and JEANNETTE B. SAUBORN, *Physical Education: Organization and Administration*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1951. Pp. viii+498. \$5.00.

GERALD B. FITZGERALD, *Leadership in Recreation*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1951. Pp. x+304. \$3.50.

Those of us who are workers in any profession are constantly looking for new ideas—theories, if you will—which can be utilized

while attempting to improve our respective programs. One of the basic problems connected with writing stems from the fact that it is exceedingly difficult to present the theory of any field and, at the same time, keep within the bounds of its practical application. If the program is to succeed, the administrator has the responsibility of clearing the way through effective organization and administration. Nash, Moench, and Saurborn's recent work dealing with organization and administration in the field of physical education very successfully ties together ideas, or theories, and practice at the elementary- and the secondary-school levels.

The material is presented in a well-chosen, logical sequence. Part One presents a clear picture of physical education as a profession, dealing with the place and function of related agencies, as well as with the nature of administration.

Part Two deals with the immediate, intermediate, and remote objectives of physical education. It is significant that the authors indicate the responsibility of the administration toward the individual as well as toward the group.

Part Three, "Setting the Stage," deals with the provision of the facilities and the establishment of organizational procedures. Federal and state relationships are discussed, including the expenditure of public money, the legal authority for conducting activities and spending money, and the co-ordination of all agencies concerned in the program. In light of these considerations, the individual school's organizational plan is discussed.

With the nucleus of the program established, routine administration is elaborated in Part Four. Here policies and procedures are discussed as the third step in the administrative pattern. The administrator is viewed as a co-ordinator, while all members of the staff work together in presenting ideas about policies and procedures.

With the program in operation, the goals which we seek must be evaluated. As pointed out in Part Five, skills tests are not enough. One must be concerned with total behavior

patterns. The authors' discussion in this area is presented primarily from the standpoint of administration rather than being concerned with suggestions for specific evaluation techniques.

Parts Six and Seven deal with setting up a program at the elementary- and the secondary-school levels, respectively. At each level the program is established primarily according to the criteria given in the preceding parts of the book. The presentation is thorough and well done; it should prove invaluable to all who endeavor to work at either or both levels.

Part Seven devotes a chapter to the relations of outdoor camps to the school. Various types of camps and their administration are described. Consideration is given to the professional preparation of would-be teachers in physical education. Finally, thought is brought to bear upon the legal liability of schools and school employees in case of injury to pupils. Safety precautions are discussed, and safety suggestions for gymnasium, pool, athletic field, camp, and playground are listed. Protection through accident insurance is encouraged.

This body of materials provides a thorough and practical presentation of the many problems confronting teachers and administrators in the field of physical education. While the scope of the material is primarily intended for elementary- and secondary-school levels, many of the ideas are applicable to the college as well.

Closely allied to the field of physical education is the recreation program. Whether the athletic and the recreational programs exert positive or negative influences depends on leadership. A timely book, *Leadership in Recreation*, was written to acquaint present-day recreation leaders with the scope, techniques, and needs of current trends, as well as to aid in preparing prospective leaders. Because of the scope of the problem in recreation and because of the comparative newness of the field and the consequent limitation in the number of leaders, it is important that good source materials be available and care-

fully studied. Thus, proper direction, as well as an increase in the number of qualified leaders, can be more readily assured.

The organization of materials in Fitzgerald's book is very good, dealing first with the subject of people, since providing for peoples' needs is precisely the reason for promoting recreational programs. As is pointed out, the success of a program depends primarily on the extent to which the leader understands the people with whom he works, although the people must, at the same time, understand their leader. What recreation is and how it is related to the social aspects of the individual and of the group are clearly discussed.

Fitzgerald then goes on to survey the field of recreation, not from the historical point of view, but rather for the purpose of identifying existing agencies—what they are and how they can contribute to the intended program.

The implications of leadership qualifications and methods are presented, emphasis being placed on the fact that leaders are made and not born. The methods used to develop leadership qualities are listed and discussed, and agency standards are noted.

A chapter on "The Status of Recreation Leadership" will provide prospective leaders with a clear picture of what they can expect in the way of salary, methods used in selecting leaders, personnel standards, state certification, supply and demand, employment practices, education and experience required, job opportunities, working conditions, etc. The general nature of the work done by some

forty colleges and universities offering professional education in recreation is well presented.

In a chapter devoted to the relations between recreation, physical education, and athletics, attention is directed to the fact that, while these three areas have many points in common, there is a distinct difference in emphasis which has not always been recognized. The chapter on "Determination of Recreation Interests" emphasizes not only the types of activity but also the age levels at which different activities come into prominence.

Democratic committee procedures for handling recreational problems are described, and leadership of clubs and their place in the recreation program are discussed. The place in a community of adult recreation, as well as the type of activities that best fit adult needs, is adequately treated. The final three chapters deal with volunteer leaders, supervision in recreation, and the planning of conferences and institutes.

The materials in this book have been well thought out, are clearly presented, and have been confined within the limits of practicability. All those who have the responsibility for training prospective recreational leaders, as well as the trainees themselves, will find this body of materials invaluable.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

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